

The Nation.

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The Week.

VARIOUS gentlemen of the press, finding time hang heavily on their hands since the decline of the excitement about "the little church round the corner," have during the past week turned their attention to the steamer *Tennessee*, which carried out the San Domingo Commission. She sailed from New York on the 17th ult. for an island from which no news by regular channels could be expected before the 22d inst., and no extraordinary means of sending home word of her safe arrival had been provided or apparently thought necessary. So they proceeded to turn this long interval to account by working up a disaster. Some made certain sailors and officers refuse to sail in her before she left port on account of her well-known unseaworthiness; others took her good heavy engines out of her, and put in flimsy light ones, so as to raise her unduly out of the water; others then put on a spar-deck on her, which increased her accommodations, but made her top-heavy; and then another flattened her bottom, so as to make her sure to capsize. While she was in this miserable condition, other gifted writers arrived, and gave her only five days' coal for a voyage of ten days, thus leaving her to make her way as best she could under sail, all the while miserably "dragging her screw." But seeing she might possibly escape in this way, they worked her into a dismal region of eternal calm, known as the "Horse Latitudes," from which it appears, however, according to others, that she may be caught by the trade-winds, and carried to the coast of Africa, which, however, she may not reach for a twelvemonth; by that time the crew would probably have eaten the Commission and correspondents, except, perhaps, Dr. Howe and Mr. Wade, who, it is not disrespectful to presume, are too tough to be palatable. Things having reached this melancholy pass, the *World* mourned its correspondent on board the unlucky vessel, and under the style and title of "a gifted associate," in eloquent terms, and, not unnaturally, laid the blame of the whole tragedy on the odious Radical Administration.

The long delay in Mr. Schenck's departure, and the mysterious hints from the Washington correspondents that something was coming, have at last been explained by the announcement that it had been agreed by the two Governments to leave the settlement, not only of the Fisheries question, but of the *Alabama* claims, and all other outstanding differences between Great Britain and the United States, to a "High Commission," composed on both sides of very eminent men, including Mr. Schenck. It would have been difficult to have hit upon a better mode of settling existing disputes, and impossible to have selected a better body of men on both sides to do the work. The only two professed masters of international law among them are Judge Nelson and Professor Mountague Bernard, but all are very familiar with the questions to be discussed, and with the principles which should regulate them. It is now said that the Commission will not go into details, but simply lay down the rules on which the settlement is to be based; and as this cannot take very long—in fact, it is done already—we may probably look forward to seeing the work finished, if at all, by the end of March. Important as the appointment of the Commission is, and as its success will be, as regards the relations of England and America, they will be still more important as regards the provision of a substitute for war in the settlement of international controversies. To be sure, international disputes have been settled by commissions before now, but none of such gravity, and none by which popular feeling had been so strongly roused. Should the *Alabama* case be peacefully adjusted in this way, it will greatly weaken the chance of any resort to war in future, and proportionably foster the habits of mind which will eventually, let us hope, make the decision even of national quarrels by a court possible. In short, no greater triumph of civilization has occurred in our day,

and, coming side by side with the savagery which has desolated France, it is all the more wonderful.

We may mention now, for the benefit of all savages and blatherskites, however, that a good way of frustrating the labors of the Commission, and keeping up the good old plan of knocking people on the head when we differ with them, will be to shake their heads over the Commission, to express the hope that the dispute may be settled in this way, but to see "many difficulties;" to trust that the Englishmen are not going to allow the national honor to be trifled with, and that Fish and Schenck are not going to be seduced by the blandishments of the aristocracy into "surrendering our just rights," and so on, and to insinuate that we need be in no hurry to settle; "if England can afford to wait, we can;" and then go to a peace-meeting, and howl against Bismarck and King William, standing armies, etc. Judging from the tone of the press, however, on this side of the water at least, the scheme will have the hearty support of the public here, and meets with the greatest satisfaction, though a correspondent of the *Tribune* writes a mysterious letter, warning the American Commissioners, as well as we can understand him, against doing anything to impede the peaceful withdrawal of England from this continent.

At the bottom of these dark hints is the idea that England is ready to go as soon as the Canadians will let her, and that, therefore, the true American policy is to make their connection with her so unpleasant that they will soon become as glad to dissolve it as she. Now, we have no doubt Great Britain will withdraw from this continent, in the natural course of things, before long, and that the Canadians will see before long that absorption by the United States is not only sure to overtake them, but the best thing that can overtake them; nevertheless, we think it is quite safe to point to this mode of hastening the desired result as one of the ways in which the war spirit is kept up and the peaceful settlement of controversies rendered difficult or impossible. It reminds one of the plan one hears of sometimes resorted to among individuals, of making a man buy or sell a bit of ground near his door by putting up a nuisance on it. The Fisheries question ought to be debated and settled as a wrong, on principles of international law, and not as a means of coercing the Canadians into doing something we cannot of right ask them to do. It is at points like this in a controversy that the peace societies ought to cry out. What they usually do, however, is to lie quiet till the throat-cutting actually begins, and then they raise their hands to heaven, and wail over the horrors of the battle-field.

Little enough has been done in Congress during the week. Naval matters have given more occupation than any other one subject, the House having before it the Naval Appropriation Bill, and the Senate the House bill to fix the rank of the staff, while an attempt to reinstate a naval constructor caused, in the House, the character of Admiral Porter and the staunchness of the *Tennessee* to be overhauled, with the usual amount of loose talking and misrepresentation. The House bill referred to does not seem to have been improved by the Senate Committee which has reported it, as they have restored the vague phraseology of "assimilated with," and otherwise failed, it seems to us, to meet the situation. The Senate passed on Monday the joint resolution to enable Mr. Miller, of Georgia, to qualify. By a vote of 106 to 103, the House avoided taking up the question of the repeal of the income tax, which will, therefore, hardly be disturbed this session.

When we read from time to time in the papers that Mr. Bancroft was associating with German scholars, and making speeches to Germans in the German language, and otherwise entering fully, freely, and with perfect familiarity with its ways and ideas, into German society, we felt he was trespassing a little too far on our patience, and we have been expecting for some time that he would come to grief. Accordingly, we are not surprised to find that the proposition, which we be-

lieve emanated from him originally, and which the President has embodied in a message to Congress, to send to the new German Empire a mission of equal rank with that of Paris and London, will, if carried out, as is probable, involve Mr. Bancroft's retirement by involving the suppression of the present Prussian mission. The new place, it seems, is wanted for Judge Orth, of Indiana, and he ought to have it, because he will bring to its duties a thoroughly fresh and unbiassed mind, owing to a thorough want of diplomatic experience and a fair ignorance of the German tongue. He will thus enter on his duties without any entangling alliances or prejudices, from which Mr. Bancroft can hardly be free.

The question of prohibitory legislation is once more making its annual appearance in Massachusetts. Last year was what might be called an off-year, owing to the preoccupation of the public mind by the Hartford and Erie trouble; but it was the turn of the license party, so they got the Prohibitory Bill of the previous year amended by authorizing the sale of beer, except on Sundays—though the defective wording of the statute, it appears, makes it also lawful on Sundays. This year it is the turn of the prohibitionists, and they are clamoring for the repeal of the beer clause, on the ground that it is used to cover the sale of all kinds of liquors. In the meantime, a new party of "moral suasion" is said to be looming up, with the view of resorting to the old methods by which the temperance movement began, and which have done ten times as much to diminish drinking as all the prohibitory laws put together. But "moral suasion" will never be successful till temperance advocates learn to be truthful and accurate. Truthfulness and accuracy, we know, to some minds are hateful, but they are the conditions of success wherever men are to be convinced. As long as the Rev. George Trask, for instance, persists in making such statements as he is reported to have recently made in this city—that young men addicted to smoking "rarely were successful and never eminent in their vocation in life," he must expect to be received by smokers with jeers and hooting, and even accused of something worse than silliness. And what can be the mental condition of an orator who holds up N. P. Banks as an example of what abstinence from cigars may do for a man, to a generation which knows Bismarck to be a smoker?

Financial circles are displaying a cheerfulness and confidence very different from the gloom recently prevailing. It is, however, difficult to see upon what the change is based. The dearth of employment for money in commerce keeps money cheap, and has induced large investments in Government securities, leading to a sharp advance in prices both here and abroad. But our five per cent. bonds are not yet selling at par in gold, though Mr. Boutwell is reported to be sanguine of success in selling his four and four-and-a-half per cents at that figure. The advance in Governments has favorably affected other securities, and lent a buoyant tone to all financial markets. Gold continues unchanged. The foreign exchanges remain at the point where specie shipments may be resumed at any day, but the gold premium seems immovable.

The provisioning of Paris has led to large purchases of breadstuffs and meat in this country, both for export and speculation, leading to some activity in trade, but no material change in prices. The cotton receipts for the week are the largest we remember, an unusual circumstance at this late period of the season, and indicating a crop equal to the highest anticipations. These heavy arrivals, and the growing uneasiness felt in England concerning the trade with the East, have depressed the price to the lowest point yet touched, although the English mills—owing to interruption in Continental production—are largely and profitably employed, and have just granted to their workmen an increase of wages, the first of the kind for a long time. All other trade is quiet, but not inactive. The cessation of the coal strike is announced for the 15th inst., but it is said work will be only partially resumed, so as to prevent a decline in the price of coal; a

partial resumption will, however, undoubtedly prove a failure. The slight improvement in real estate appears to be totally lost, and sales have come almost to a stand-still.

The usual statistics of commercial credit for the whole of the United States have just been published for 1870. They show an increase of fully 25 per cent. in the number of failures, and an increase of nearly 20 per cent. in the amount of liabilities, compared with last year's. Neither the number of failures nor the amount of liabilities is alarming, compared with such years as 1857 and 1861, but they materially exceed the average of other years, and are, besides, noteworthy as showing a steady increase for several years past. The largest proportionate increase in any State of importance is found in California, nearly 300 per cent., no doubt mainly due to the bursting of the overblown real-estate bubble. Throughout the Southern and Southwestern States the increase is especially heavy, nearly 100 per cent.; only Kentucky and Virginia showing a decrease. In New England, both Massachusetts and New Hampshire show an improved state of credit, and New York State, including the city, likewise presents a healthy decrease. The West shows, on the whole, a moderate increase in failures. But the two States which give the character to the whole tables are Ohio and Pennsylvania, in which the increase has been very large, these two alone being responsible for fully one-half of the total increase throughout the whole of the United States. These are the two States which are generally believed to have most largely benefited by the protective tariff, and to have added most largely to their new industries and their varied sources of wealth. Has this anything to do with it?

The people of Indiana have at last, we are glad to see, waked up to a sense of the mischief and immorality worked by their divorce legislation. Ever since the opening of the present session of the Legislature, petitions for a change, very numerous, signed, have been pouring in from all parts of the State; and in response to these a bill was introduced into the Senate, and at the date of our last advices had passed that body by a vote of 37 to 3. It is expected that it will be equally successful in the House. The first section deals with the most disgraceful feature of the present law, by providing that where the cause of divorce has arisen in another State, the petitioner shall have to prove *bona-fide* residence of three years, instead of one, in the State and in the county in which the petition is filed; and, moreover—and this is perhaps of more importance than all—that the divorce shall not be granted unless the act or acts complained of were a good cause of divorce in the State in which they were committed. In addition to this, the bill forbids the granting of a divorce, where the place of the defendant's residence is known, without personal service of the summons. The causes of divorce, too, are distinctly specified, and nothing is left, as under the old law, to the discretion of the judge. They are six in number; but no divorce can be granted except for adultery, or conviction for an infamous crime, until the parties shall have been married at least three years. We believe there is a growing feeling all over the country in favor of giving the marriage relation stronger legal support than it has had of late years. A community which cares little for the strength of the family tie, which makes no effort to secure homes and parental care for its children, and treats the sexual relation as simply an affair of individual taste or "affinity," has no future on this earth. Purer and manlier races will thrash it in war, and surpass it in the arts of peace, and finally banish it out of sight, with its platforms, and preambles, and "soulful sermons," and all its gilded nastiness.

The French National Assembly, convened at Bordeaux, held a preparatory sitting on Monday, the 12th. Of the seven hundred and fifty-three members who were to be elected on the 8th, about three hundred were present. The political complexion of these deputies is not stated in the despatch. We hear, however, that the elections in the provinces have resulted largely in favor of the conservatives—that is, of monarchists of all shades—and that a rough estimate in reference to fifty-six out of the eighty-nine departments of France gives three hundred

and seventy elections to the Bonapartists and Orleanists, and eighty to the Republicans—no mention being made of legitimists, that is to say, Bourbonists. The proportion between Bonapartists and Orleanists seems to be vastly in favor of the latter, as no particular Imperialist triumphs are announced from any quarter, while we hear of the election of Thiers in eighteen departments, of General Trochu in seven—his success above his Republican colleagues shows that he was voted for by Orleanists on account of his former proclivities—of General Changarnier in four, of Dufaure in three, of Rémusat in two, and of Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire and the Duc d'Aumale in at least single departments. None of the monarchical parties appears to have broadly unfurled its own flag; their candidates presenting themselves as "Conservatives," "Moderates," or "Liberal Union" men, and here and there triumphing by coalition votes combined against the Republicans. Whether the Orleanists have succeeded in carrying a majority, or something approaching it, of all the elections, or whether their ranks are likely to be increased in the Assembly by accessions of monarchists of a different color—from hatred of the Republic—or of moderate Republicans—from fear of an Imperial restoration or anarchy—is still to be seen. It is probable that most of those designated as "Imperialists" are so called simply because they have served the Empire, or given in their adhesion to it during its existence.

In so far as the influence of the priests goes, it has doubtless all been thrown for the Bonapartists, under whose sway the church has had better times in France than she has had since 1789, and from whom alone is an effort for the restoration of the temporal power at Rome to be expected. The sober, more intelligent, and well-to-do masses, not influenced by the priests, are probably mostly Orleanists. There is no period of French history to which this class can look back with so much comfort as the eighteen years of Louis Philippe's reign. It was the one taste of peace and freedom France has had in this century. With the Republic everybody except the socialists of the cities is pretty thoroughly disgusted, and M. Gambetta's performances have done nothing to revive confidence in it. He, like Louis Napoleon, came to grief through subordinating the military campaign to the necessities of his party. He fought the Prussians for the Republic rather than for France. If the Orleanists win the game at last, it is at least certain that France will commit her destinies to the hands of a family of pure, upright, and accomplished gentlemen, who in their time have seen, done, and suffered much, and are Frenchmen to the core.

Most of the Republican triumphs have taken place in the large cities, the *ouivers* of which are their main support. According to more or less definite accounts, they have carried a majority of the elections in Paris, Bordeaux, Havre, Brest, Lille, Dijon, Strasbourg, Lyons, Toulon, Marseilles, and Perpignan, while Nantes, Rouen, Versailles, Poitiers, and Montauban have gone against them. Their victory in Paris is, of course, the most important, and enhanced as it is by similar results in the towns of the second rank, once more reveals the pronounced character of the political dualism which so often, especially in times of a violent crisis, fatally divides the French people into a radical urban and a conservative rural population. In Paris, the ultra-radicals and the next shade of Republicans are reported to have rolled up the highest majorities, electing, among others—as far as could be ascertained at last accounts—Louis Blanc, Victor Hugo, Edgar Quinet, Garibaldi, Rochefort, Gambetta, Schoelcher, Delescluze, Félix Pyat, and probably also Ledru-Rollin, Blanqui, and Flourens. Gambetta is also elected in Strasbourg, and at one more place. Jules Favre, Picard, and Leflô are also members of the Assembly; but Garibaldi declines to take his seat, though elected both in Paris and Nice. General Faidherbe is honored by an election in the Department of Somme, which witnessed his defeats. Paris sends to the Assembly the Admirals Saisset and Pothuau. Altogether, it is clear that there will be no lack of talent of any kind—especially oratorical—in that extraordinary gathering, in spite of the absence of all the great lights of the Second Empire—lights which the day of Sedan has probably dimmed for ever. But it is not talent, and least of all oratorical talent, which is to save and regenerate France, but good sense,

patriotic self-abnegation, and harmony; and heaven knows whether these will be forthcoming in a sufficient degree.

The doings of the two branches of the Government of National Defence during the fortnight following the armistice, and embracing the elections, have been far from evincing a spirit of harmony. Gambetta called out the military class of 1871; the Paris Government annulled the decree. Gambetta decreed sweeping electoral disqualifications; Favre and his friends annulled them; but on the eve of the elections, Emanuel Arago, having arrived at Bordeaux from Paris to act as Minister of the Interior, restored a part of them—if we are rightly informed by the Cable. Whether the threatened or actual restrictions exercised any influence upon the elections, by here and there excluding a pronounced Imperialist candidature or otherwise, we are not told. Nor do we know whether Napoleon's latest manifesto, dated "Wilhelmshöhe, Feb. 8"—the day of election, which makes us doubt the correctness of the date—was distributed in France in time to influence the voters one way or the other. The impudent tone of this document is enough to astonish any adherent of the Empire not entirely demented. According to it, the Man of Sedan is an innocent victim, "betrayed by fortune" and "crushed by injustice;" the Empire a still legitimate "authority, emanating from universal suffrage;" and France bound "to call to account the usurpers"—the overthrowers of the Imperial throne—"for bloodshed, and ruin, and squandered resources," erecting, or rather re-erecting, a government "able to heal the wounds, to bring hope to the firesides, to reopen the profaned churches for prayers, and to restore industry, concord, and peace." Of liberty there is not a word, not the slightest allusion to it; and it is evident that the captive of Wilhelmshöhe, while wrapt in "a profound silence, which is misfortune's mourning," proposes to reign over France, if recalled to her throne, as an undisguised tyrant. The usurpers he speaks of have, in the meanwhile, before the Bordeaux Assembly, "resigned the powers confided to them as Government of National Defence," remaining in office provisionally "until the constitution of a new Government."

At the German headquarters in Versailles the impression prevailed that the French National Assembly would frame a new Provisional Government, with the Comte de Paris, Louis Philippe's grandson, as President, and provide for a *plébiscite* to decide between the Orleans throne and the Republic. The Germans—both in Versailles and in Berlin—also believed that peace would shortly be concluded, and thus were not at all averse to a prolongation of the armistice—the less so as the stipulations of the latter did not prevent them from making progress in the reduction of Belfort, or from levying heavy contributions on Rouen, Dieppe, and other towns of the North. That the conquerors were wise enough totally to abstain from interference with the elections is proved by the result of the latter in Paris, Strasbourg, and other cities swayed by their arms. According to a report claiming particular authority, their peace conditions, too, are much less harsh than was formerly anticipated, especially as regards the pecuniary part of them. The delivery of arms by the Paris garrison is said to have been carried out to nearly the full extent stipulated. The re-constituting of that city, in which the English Government and people have taken a creditable share, progresses with equal promptness.

The Roman question has progressed so far that the Italian Chambers have voted regal honors and a body-guard to the Pope, and a fund to support him; but the right of enlistment is of course denied him, and the libraries and galleries of the Vatican have been, in spite of ministerial opposition, declared public property. On some other points of settlement the ministry seem likely to be defeated, and it is by no means clear that the Government's will that the Pope should not be subjected to any temporal authority, will be fully respected. How to reconcile the demands for "regal honors" to two sovereigns within the same walls, is a problem that will come up after the removal of the capital to Rome. Meantime, the lieutenancy of that city, heretofore held by General Lamarmora, has been abolished, and the Minister of Public Works, Gadda, goes as Royal Commissioner to prepare the necessary accommodations for the transfer of the Government.



THE POLITICAL EFFECTS OF THE NEW APPORTIONMENT.

ONCE in each period of ten years Congress must fix upon the number of delegates which shall compose the House of Representatives, and apportion them among the several States according to their respective populations. The time for the performance of this duty for the next decade has now arrived. The provisions of the Constitution are few and simple: "Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers." "The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of Congress, and within every subsequent term of ten years." "The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative." There is here no express command that the House shall be rearranged immediately after the completion of a census, but such is the evident spirit and meaning of the clauses taken together, or else the members would not "be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers." While Congress undoubtedly has the power to postpone the measures of reorganization for a reasonable time, a delay continued unnecessarily would be an infraction of the organic law. The results of the late census in respect to population are now known, and it is possible to apply them to the Forty-second Congress, which commences on the 4th of March, 1871. This is possible, we say, but there would be inconveniences attending the proceeding almost insurmountable. Elections have been held in all the States except five. If the whole number of representatives in the new House should equal that of the present, nine of these States would lose one or more representatives. Even if the number should be increased within limits which seem to be at all possible, two or three States must each lose a member from their delegations. If the change were to be in every instance an increase, no inconvenience would be produced. The present delegation already appointed from a State remaining unaffected, the added member or members for the Forty-second Congress could be chosen at large, as is now done in Illinois. The effects of dropping out a member would be much more confusing; the election of last fall would be made inoperative. A new arrangement of districts throughout the State, and a second general election, would become necessary, all of which must be provided for by the local legislature. For these reasons, it is probable that the apportionment will be postponed until the next session, and will be made to take effect with the Forty-third Congress; although the members from Western States, which would generally gain in the new allotment, seem anxious to push the matter to a conclusion before the final adjournment. It has been suggested that, if the apportionment does not go into operation until the expiration of the Forty-second Congress, the next Presidential election may be affected, because the electors from each State must equal the number of its representatives and senators. This, however, is a mistake, so far as the popular vote is concerned. The whole scheme for organizing the House would be completed before the year 1872, so that the Presidential electors, as well as the members from all the States, would be ascertained, and the election would be held upon the new basis. There is still one contingency in which the election of President may perhaps be affected; namely, if it should be thrown into the House of Representatives during the last session of the Forty-second Congress. But even then, the possibility of an altered result would be exceedingly remote, since each State has but a single vote, which is, of course, controlled by the majority of its delegation, and it is not probable that this majority would be changed solely by any gain or loss of members under the allotment based upon the census of 1870.

We purpose now to exhibit at a glance the effects which the new apportionment will work in the House itself, and especially those which it will produce in the representation from different geographical divisions of the country, and, consequently, upon the relative amount of legislative power held by them. The House is now composed of 243 members. If the same number should be again adopted, eleven States will lose one or more representatives. It is hard for any community to surrender political power; it is harder still for individuals to lessen their own opportunity for office-holding. If, for instance, the delegation from Maine must, in a certain contingency, be reduced from five to four, it is natural that the present five should use all their endeavors

to prevent such a catastrophe. This can only be done by adding to the whole number of representatives. Although no definite action has yet been taken, it may be considered as reasonably certain that this number in the new House will be fixed at or about 275. Any greater increase would render the body unwieldy and its legislative work difficult. We shall, therefore, base our calculations upon this assumption. In determining the delegation to which each State is entitled, the unit of representation must first be obtained. Four of the States, Delaware, Florida, Nevada, and Oregon, contain each a population considerably less than this unit, and are still entitled each to one member. Both the amount of their inhabitants and the number of their representatives must, therefore, be rejected from the totals in order to arrive at an accurate result, because their members do not depend upon the apportionment to be made, but are arbitrarily fixed by the Constitution. Making this deduction, the resulting unit of representation is over 138,000 (138,441). Dividing the total population of each State by this unit, and allowing a member for every remainder which exceeds one-half of the divisor, and the proper allotment will be reached. There will doubtless be some slight discrepancies between our results and those which will finally be adopted by Congress. A committee in which all the work must be done has ample facilities for manipulating the remainders, and thus transferring a gain or a loss from one State to another to subserve party and political purposes, and we must expect some "gerrymandering" with figures as well as with districts. The method indicated, however, is mathematically accurate, and by its means we arrive at the following conclusions:

The whole number of representatives will be 275. Fifteen States—Alabama, California, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia—will each gain one member. Kansas, Texas, and Wisconsin will each gain two members. Iowa, Michigan, and Missouri will each gain three, and Illinois four, members. A member is due in sixteen of these States to a remainder greater than one-half of the unit of representation; in seven of them this surplus exceeds 100,000. On the other hand, New Hampshire and Vermont will each lose a member. The relative changes made by this apportionment are somewhat concealed by the general increase resulting from the addition of thirty-two representatives to the House. As the relations of the several States to each other must be the same, whatever unit of representation is used, the correct proportions will appear more clearly from a computation based upon the assumption that the whole House remains unaltered. Adopting this basis, the unit or divisor will be a little more than 150,000, and we shall have the following results: The total number of representatives would be 243. Eight States—California, Georgia, Kansas, Minnesota, New Jersey, South Carolina, Texas, and Wisconsin—would each gain one member. Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, and Missouri would each gain two members. On the other hand, eight States—Connecticut, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Rhode Island, and Vermont—would each lose one member. Pennsylvania would lose two, while New York and Ohio would each lose three.

By combining and tabulating these figures, we can indicate with accuracy the geographical tendency of population and of political power. The New England States, having now twenty-seven representatives, would lose six in a House composed of 243, and one in a House composed of 275 members. The four Middle States now send sixty-one delegates; they would lose four if the House should be kept at its present size, and gain three if it should be enlarged as proposed. Fourteen Southern States, now represented by seventy-five members, would gain either one or two under the corresponding circumstances. Thirteen Western States, including those on the Pacific coast, at present send eighty members; they would gain nine in the one case and twenty in the other. Passing from these actual to the relative gains and losses, and remembering that the relations of the various parts to each other remain the same whatever basis is adopted, we find that the New England States are at present entitled to 11 per cent. of the total representation, and under any new apportionment will be reduced to 9 per cent. The Middle States now hold 25 per cent., and will fall off to 23 per cent. The Southern States at present send 31 per cent. of

the members, and their proportion will remain unchanged. In the Western States there will be an increase from 33 per cent. to 37 per cent. A different geographical division will further illustrate the subject. Twenty seaboard States, embracing New England, the Middle States, and those Southern States bordering on the Atlantic and on the Gulf, under the existing apportionment send 140 members. They will lose eight in a House composed of 243, and gain ten in a House of 275. Fourteen States of the Mississippi and Ohio Valleys are represented by ninety-eight members; they will gain seven in the former House, and twenty-one in the latter. The three Pacific States now send five, and will gain one; the relative changes in these three divisions will be, on the seaboard, a reduction from 58 per cent. to 54 per cent.; in the Mississippi Valley an increase from 40 per cent. to 43 per cent.; and on the Pacific slope an increase from 2 per cent. to 3 per cent.

It therefore appears that the aggregate losses, amounting to 4 per cent. of the entire representation, are confined to the New England and Middle States, and that the loss in New England is relatively the greater. The relative representation of the Southern States will be unchanged. This result is not due to any proportional increase of population, for the percentage of such increase during the past ten years has been small; but to the fact that in the apportionment based upon the census of 1860 only three-fifths of the slaves were represented. The aggregate gains will be found alone in the Mississippi basin and on the Pacific slope, being three per cent. of the whole representation in the former and one per cent. in the latter. Among these States the largest additions occur in Illinois, Michigan, Iowa, and Missouri. Ohio will suffer a positive diminution of political power. It will be seen from these statements that, though the tendency of population has been steadily westward, the progress has not been so rapid as many ardent Western men have anticipated. The political sceptre has not yet been transferred from the seaboard to the regions drained by the Mississippi, the Ohio, and the Missouri. But if the change should go on for the next ten years at the past rate of movement, another census and apportionment would leave the States in the Mississippi Valley masters of the political situation.

If we enquire what effect the new apportionment will produce upon the relative strength of parties in the House, we find that in States which at the last elections were Republican there will be a gain of twenty-two and a loss of two members, and that in States which were at the same time Democratic, there will be a gain of twelve, indicating an excess of eight in Republican gains. This result, however, is utterly unreliable. It assumes that all the additional members to which a particular State is entitled would be in political accord with the dominant party therein. In order to approximate an accurate conclusion, we should ascertain the relative increase or diminution of population in the different parts of the same State. The States in which a change of representation is made must be arranged into new districts, and the members redistributed, before the actual political gains and losses can be determined with precision.

PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT.

THERE is one feature of the Constitution of the United States which fell into considerable disrepute with many observers, and especially foreign ones, during the rebellion and during the reign of Andrew Johnson, but which has been rapidly rising again into favor with political philosophers during the last five years—we mean the independence of the executive. Many a time, during even Lincoln's administration, and oftener still during Johnson's, people sighed for the British practice of turning out the ministry by a hostile vote of the legislature, so as to keep the executive in complete and constant sympathy with the changes in public feeling or opinion. Indeed, at the close of Johnson's term, a good many people were fully satisfied that a President who could hold his own after a majority in Congress had begun to disapprove of him was a public nuisance; and probably nothing that he said won more popularity for Grant than his announcement that, when he took office, he would have no "policy" of his own—that is, would be in fact, though not in form, what the British Premier is, the

exponent and champion of that view of public affairs which, for the time being, commanded most votes.

The British system has thus far had more imitators among the nations which have tried constitutional government than the American has had; indeed, the American may be said to have had none. Holland, Belgium, France, and Italy, the four monarchies which since 1815 have made a fair trial of constitutional government, have all adopted the form known as parliamentary government, that is, the government in which the executive is appointed or dismissed at pleasure by the majority of the legislature; but Belgium is the only one in which it has achieved a decided success. In all the others, though it cannot be said to have absolutely failed—the government of Louis Philippe was overthrown by the king's pusillanimity combined with excessive centralization—it has never produced quiet, orderly progress, and has never sufficed to deliver people either from the fear of revolution or from a series of dead-locks whose effects on politicians have been hardly less demoralizing than revolution. Austria is now trying it, and with a fair measure of success, but she is lucky enough to have in the Hungarians a set of men who possess remarkable and hereditary skill as parliamentarians. It has been set up, too, in Roumania, but has there worked so ill that Prince Charles threatens to abdicate through sheer disgust with its embarrassments. Professor Von Sybel, in his late article on the political future of Germany in the *Fortnightly Review*, says there is no immediate prospect of its adoption in Prussia, for the simple reason that the materials for it do not exist. In England, which invented it, and whose boast and glory it has been ever since 1688, there is growing discontent with it—a growing inclination to look on the American plan as its superior, or, at all events, as containing the germ of something better.

The objections to it are two in number, and they gain in force as the constituencies become more democratized. The first applies more particularly to France, Italy, and, according to Professor Von Sybel, to Germany. It is this: it is necessary to the successful working of the parliamentary system not only that there be two parties, ranged against each other in the legislature, one the administration and the other the opposition, but also that the opposition be united on a certain line of policy, and be ready, if it gets a chance, to go into power, and administer the government itself on that platform. Unless the opposition is ready to take the place of the ministry as soon as the ministry loses the favor of the majority, there is no parliamentary government. Now, in France and Italy such an opposition can hardly be said to exist, or ever have existed. The opposition in these countries, and this is true also of Roumania, agrees in only one thing—hostility to the party in power; but this hostility is due to all sorts of motives: with some it springs from disapproval of certain measures; with others from a habitual, and we may say hereditary, distrust of men in office; with others from a fundamental disapproval of the whole constitution, and a desire to upset it. These elements all act together in attacking and criticising the ministry; but it never enters into their heads to unite on a programme of their own, and ask to have the government committed to their hands in order that they may carry it out. Professor Von Sybel says that the last thing that occurs to a Prussian liberal deputy is to seek office in order to have things his own way. He considers his business to be criticism simply, and never dreams of its imposing on him the responsibility of framing a positive policy. The result is that when, under the parliamentary system as it has been tried in France and Italy, a ministry becomes so unpopular as to be unable to obtain legislation in support of its ideas, the whole machinery of state comes to a dead-lock. If the king, according to the English custom, sends to the chiefs of the opposition and asks them to make a cabinet and take the reins, he finds he might as well try to make a rope of sand. Some of them desire one thing and others another, and many the total destruction of the monarchy, or the reorganization of society on some new basis. A frequent consequence is that the ministry remains in office, but without power. It can only act with the consent of the legislature, and that it cannot get. In Prussia, at present, the ministry get over the difficulty by obtaining parliamentary authority for their acts if possible, but, if not, doing without it.

The second objection is one which is, thus far, only applicable to

England. Here the opposition is disciplined, acts under a leader, and has a platform of its own, and attacks the ministry with the avowed object of taking its place. But, as the constituency grows more democratic, public opinion grows more variable and acts more fitfully. The position of the ministry becomes more precarious, and its term of office has a tendency to become shorter. On the other hand, the work of government becomes every day more complicated. Society is slowly undergoing reorganization from top to bottom. Where the ground is so cumbered by tradition and custom, plans of reform have to be framed with great care, and need long periods for their execution. But such plans cannot be carried out properly if they pass every year or two into new hands. If there is no permanence in the executive, there can be no sequence in its acts. People are beginning to say, therefore, that, in order to enable it to do its work with any heart or hope or zeal or fidelity, it must be delivered for a fixed period from all anxiety about its existence, and from the necessity of fighting for its life every night in the House of Commons; that the premier must, in short, be anchored in his place for a term of years, as our President is.

Various criticisms on all this, suggested by American experience, might be produced, if we had time, here. The idea which underlies the English difficulty, and which is slowly obtaining recognition, is, however, a sound and wholesome one—and that is, that the world cannot be governed by the public opinion of any one week or month, particularly when it emanates from the vast bodies which now compose a modern state; that "the people," though omnipotent, is human, and has its gusts of passion and moments of weakness, against which it has to guard itself, by imposing on itself the necessity for reflection. The novelty which made the political machine so much of a toy in the early part of the democratic movement, and made the mere turning of the crank, without reference to results, so delightful, is rapidly giving way to a sober appreciation of the fact that self-government, besides being a mere evidence of freedom, is an instrument in the improvement of men's condition in society, and its efficiency is becoming an object of even greater interest than its looks.

The failure of parliamentary government in France and Italy and Roumania is simply the result of want of training in party politics, and will probably pass away with time and practice. Italian politicians, with a few splendid exceptions, were, until 1859, conspirators, and conspirators are always dreamers; and it is not unnatural that, on finding themselves legislators, their first efforts should be directed to the embodiment of the idols of their fancy in the shape and substance of votes and speeches, if not of acts. Besides, where a nation is suddenly put together, as the Italian nation has been, there are so many possibilities dancing before men's eyes, that it is no wonder it takes years for them to settle down on the existing constitution as a finality. In France the evil lies deeper, and is born of peculiarities of character as well as of historical antecedents. Parliamentary or even constitutional government will probably hardly work there successfully till somebody who is heartily friendly to it, and determined to have it fully tried, holds the central authority long enough and with a sufficiently strong hand to enable the constitutional system to lay hold of the French people as a habit—as one of the ultimate facts of their political life. Whoever, in doing this, enables a generation of Frenchmen to grow up in familiarity with the machinery of government, and with that affection for it which familiarity always inspires, will be entitled to the credit of having regenerated France.

CIVIL COURTS AND ECCLESIASTICAL TRIBUNES.

It is desirable to have well settled the test of what is and what is not a case for the intervention of a civil court in an ecclesiastical proceeding. The decision in the case of the Rev. Mr. Cheney, of Chicago, disposed of the petition before it in a way to which all must, as far as the result is concerned, assent; but instead of helping to settle the principle, the court has added a doubt to the subject.

The Rev. Mr. Cheney had been cited before a court of the diocese of Illinois, to answer two charges of having refused compliance with certain requirements of the canons of his church. He appeared and took exception to the organization of the court, the presentment, and the citation.

These exceptions were overruled. He then filed his bill in equity, in the civil courts, asking for an injunction against the proceedings of the ecclesiastical tribunal. This bill set forth that his rights of property and right to exercise a function of public concern and private advantage were involved in the proceeding, inasmuch as the ecclesiastical court might sentence him to depose or suspension from the ministry, and thus he would be deprived of his salary as rector of the parish over which he was settled, and of the means of earning his livelihood by officiating elsewhere as a clergyman of the Episcopal Church. This was the ground for the right of intervention of a civil court. As reasons for an exercise of the right in his case, he alleged three classes of objections to the ecclesiastical proceedings:

I. That the ecclesiastical court was not constituted and organized in accordance with the canons of the Episcopal Church.

II. That the presentment did not set forth his offence with sufficient particularity of dates.

III. That he had not received sufficient notice.

All the objections seem to come under one of these heads.

The Supreme Court were unanimous in the opinion that the objections were not well founded. They held that the court was organized and constituted in accordance with the canons of the Episcopal Church; and that the presentment and notice were sufficient, whether judged of by the laws of the Episcopal Church or by analogy with the usages of civil courts, in criminal and penal proceedings. This decision disposed of the objections of the petitioner, and was enough to dispose of the case, if the court had been willing to say that they dismissed the petition on that ground, without attempting to say whether, if the objections had been sustained, it was a case for intervention. But the majority of the court, in the opinion delivered by Thornton, J., enter upon a discussion of the general principle, which drew out a dissenting opinion from Chief-Justice Lawrence and Judge Sheldon.

The majority of the court held that the case was not one for the intervention of a civil court had the objections been sustained. The minority held that it was such a case. The majority held that the decision of the ecclesiastical court as to its own jurisdiction, under the canons and laws of the church, was conclusive on the civil courts; while the minority held that it was not. Thus the case was disposed of on grounds of no general importance or interest, and a question of great general importance thrown into increased doubt.

After carefully examining the opinion of the majority, we find it difficult even to state the line of argument on which it apparently rests. It seems to us to lack order and clearness; and, so far as it is intelligible, the reasoning seems very loose. It adopts the unquestionable rule that there must be a right of property or some other purely civil right involved to justify intervention, and argues that there is no such right involved in the case before it. It is true, Mr. Cheney has a salary dependent on his being able to exercise his functions as a clergyman of the Episcopal Church; and by a deprivation of these functions he also is disabled from earning a living as a clergyman of that church anywhere. The only answer that we can see the court gives to this is, that his right to the salary is not a "vested" right, but contingent on his ability to exercise his functions; and that his right to pursue his avocation as a clergyman elsewhere, for pecuniary profit, is also not an absolute and vested right, but one dependent on the action of the church to which he has voluntarily submitted himself by joining it. To the best we have been able to ascertain, these are the only answers given to the claim that the case presented questions of civil rights.

The court then takes the ground, which is indisputable, that even if the case presented is one involving civil rights, a civil court will not revise a decision of an ecclesiastical court on the merits of a case before it, or on a question of ecclesiastical doctrine or discipline, but must confine itself to determining whether the tribunal assuming to act on the party's civil rights is really what it assumes to be, viz., an ecclesiastical court, organized under the laws of the church; and whether it has jurisdiction over the person and the subject-matter, by the laws of the church. If it is not such a court, and has not such jurisdiction, it will be enjoined; but otherwise, decision within the scope of its authority is conclusive. On this general proposition, the court was unanimous, and there is, we suppose, no doubt in the professional mind. The very pinch of the question comes just where the court divided. *If the case is one in which the jurisdiction of an ecclesiastical court depends solely on the interpretation of the laws of the church, is the interpretation that the ecclesiastical court gives to those laws conclusive on the civil courts?*

The question was fairly raised, if the court chose to discuss it, because the petitioner contended that the court was not organized in the way the canons required. He contended that the eight clergymen nominated by the bishop ought all to have been present when the court convened, whereas only five of the eight were present, and that the presentment was fatally irregular, because of the terms of the commission issued by the bishop to the presenters. These objections went to the very existence of the court, as a tribunal capable of acting on his case at all.

We make these extracts from the opinion of the majority bearing on this point, that the reader may have every opportunity of understanding the opinion:

"Without asserting the power of this court in cases of this character, yet, on account of the earnest, and able, and elaborate arguments of counsel, we will notice the objection, that the spiritual court had no authority to adjudicate upon the alleged offence."

"The civil courts will interfere with churches, or religious associations, when rights of property or civil rights are involved. But they will not revise the decisions of such associations upon ecclesiastical matters, merely to ascertain their jurisdiction."

"Why should we review that and not every other decision which involves the interpretation of the canons? It is conceded that, when jurisdiction attaches, the judgment of the church court is conclusive as to purely ecclesiastical offences. It should be equally conclusive upon doubtful and technical questions, involving a criticism of the canons, even though they might comprise jurisdictional facts. It requires no more intellect, information, or honesty to decide what is an ecclesiastical offence than to determine the authority of the court according to the canons. The distinction is without a difference."

Does the court really mean to say that the distinction between construing a canon for the purpose of determining a question of jurisdiction, and construing it for the purpose of deciding a question of guilt or innocence of a spiritual offence, is without a difference? Also, does the court mean to say that if the jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical tribunal depends upon "doubtful and technical questions" of canon law, its decision is conclusive, while, if the questions are not doubtful or technical, it is not?

From the confusion into which it seems to us the majority of the court has drawn the subject, it is a relief to turn to the clear statement by the minority:

"We concur in the decision of the case at bar announced in the foregoing opinion, and we also concur in the opinion itself, except as to one principle therein. We understand the opinion as implying that, in the administration of ecclesiastical discipline, and where there is no other right of property involved than the loss of the clerical office or salary as an incident to such discipline, a spiritual court is the exclusive judge of its own jurisdiction, under the laws or canons of the religious association to which it belongs, and its decision of that question is binding upon secular courts. This is a principle of so grave a character that, believing it to be erroneous, we are constrained to express our dissent upon the record."

"We concede that, when a spiritual court has once been organized in conformity with the rules of the denomination of which it forms a part, and when it has jurisdiction of the parties and the subject-matter, its subsequent action in the administration of spiritual discipline will not be revised by the secular courts."

"The simple reason is, that the association is purely voluntary, and when a person joins it he consents that, for all spiritual offences, he will be tried by a tribunal organized in conformity with the laws of the society. But he has not consented that he will be tried by one not so organized; and when a clergyman is in danger of being degraded from his office, and losing his salary and means of livelihood, by the action of a spiritual court unlawfully constituted, we are very clearly of opinion he may come to the secular courts for protection. It would be the duty of such courts to examine the question of jurisdiction, without regard to the decision of the spiritual court itself; and if they find such tribunal has been organized in defiance of the laws of the association, and is exercising a merely usurped and arbitrary power, they should furnish such protection as the laws of the land will give. We consider this position clearly sustainable upon principles and authority."

AFFAIRS AT THE CAPITAL.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 13, 1871.

THE session of Congress and the fashionable season are both at their height, and members and senators find themselves subject to a divided duty. There are some peculiar features in Washington society. The commercial element, which is very unfavorable to the genial character of social intercourse, is entirely absent, and there are persons from all parts of the Union, of all pursuits and professions, who have while here a good deal of leisure time on their hands. The Presidential receptions are a type of all others. They are perfectly free to every one, and yet there seems to be no offensive intrusion. The opportunity thus given of seeing all the notables is extremely attractive to strangers, and must tend constantly to increase the disposition to make this city a place of permanent residence.

Of the political features, one of the most striking is the position of the representatives of the public press, not the newspapers themselves, but the individuals who conduct the telegraphic correspondence. If a person writes a letter to one of the papers in the great cities, this letter is subject to revision by the editor, and may be altered or rejected entirely. But the telegraphic matter is sent off at midnight to appear in the morning paper. It is paid for by the word, and cannot therefore be wasted. It occupies the most prominent place, and is read by everybody. The result is that there is not a member of either House of Congress who does not stand in positive awe of the twenty or thirty young men in the reporters' gallery. It is amusing to see the respect with which men having a lively sense of their own importance, return the salutations or receive the advances of others much their inferiors in age and station. As to the men who fill this important position, they seem to be generally of fair character and capacity, aiming to furnish news without the coloring of personal impressions, but they cannot of course be wholly impersonal; and it excites singular reflections to see the channel of information to the country represented, in the case of one of our largest commercial journals, by a boyish youth, with the appearance of a retail dry-goods clerk, and conversation indicating an education and habit of mind by no means Puritanic. It is not without significance that there is in this body a very general feeling of hostility to the administration. The press is almost the only weapon of the executive against the encroachments of Congress, and it is unfortunate, though perhaps not unnatural, that President Grant should have surrounded himself mainly with military men, and thus cut himself off from the medium of communication with the country.

At present the San Domingo business forms the largest cloud on the horizon, threatening both the administration and the Republican party. The absence of news from the *Tennessee* is causing some excitement, but apparently less because there is any real ground for anxiety than from speculation as to the political effect which her loss would have. In the debate upon the appointment of the Commission, it was evident that the scheme of annexation commanded very little sympathy from anybody, and would be supported only by those whose vision, unaffected by the distant future, extends only as far as the election of 1872. The temper of the House was shown by the amendment carried "that the appointment of the Commission should not be understood as committing Congress to annexation." The real struggle will begin when the report of the Commission appears. It is devoutly to be wished that the President would retire gracefully from so unpopular a scheme, but it is to be feared that the man who fought the battles of the Wilderness will not yield so easily, and, moreover, that the advisers who have his ear are not independent enough to place the question in the true light. What can be the motive of the President is a question often asked, but not answered. The Republican opponents, while they admit the personal honesty of the President, do not extend the same charity to the men by whom he is surrounded. The Republican senators in opposition are anxiously counting up their means of resistance. Annexation must be proposed, if at all, either in the form of a treaty or a joint resolution. In the first case, 25 votes will be sufficient, two-thirds being required for confirmation, and with the aid of the Democrats (misery makes strange bedfellows) they count upon having these, with two or three votes to spare. In the case of a joint resolution, there are questions of constitutionality as to the method, which are relied upon for restraining some votes in the House. At all events, it is a satisfaction that the question cannot come before the present Congress, as there are some 40 members who are to retire with its close, and might be open to influence from the hope of Executive appointments.

The appointment of the Joint Commission on the *Alabama* and other questions with Great Britain seems to give general satisfaction, notwithstanding that the range of subjects to be treated is somewhat too wide to give good hope of the result. It is an earnest of good intentions on the part of Great Britain that the Commission should meet in Washington, and our commissioners will be justified in yielding the utmost limit of concession that the feeling of the country will allow. Our experience of war is too recent to prevent a feeling of relief at the dispersion of even a slight war cloud; and, notwithstanding the soreness at the conduct of England during our war, and the truckling of politicians to the Irish vote, it can hardly be doubted that the sympathy of the sober masses will be heartily with Great Britain in the European struggle which threatens to break out at no distant day.

The remainder of the session will probably be occupied with actual business in the way of appropriations and the like, leaving it for the next Congress (which meets on the 6th of March, and is expected to continue in

session for some time) to show whether there is any disposition to meet the great questions of internal reform. The bulk of outside bills are in what is called the calendar of the Speaker's table, and the consideration of this has been postponed because it contains some railroad grants which the House is afraid to meet, and this has caused the immediate business of the House to be rather further advanced than might otherwise have been the case.

It is noticeable that there has not been this session a single speech upon the requirements of the country for more bank currency. You are aware that at the last session provision was made for fifty millions more bank issues, but upon terms which would give little or no profit to the banks. The result has been that only a small part of the capital has been taken up, showing conclusively that what was wanted was not more currency for the country, but more chances of profit for banks. A central bureau of redemption is one of the topics now under consideration, but, simple and obvious as the utility of such an institution may appear, it has no chance against the adverse interest of the banks. The chairman of the committee confesses that they have an extreme dislike and distrust of any measures interfering with bank privileges. There is no doubt that the chief obstacle to specie payments lies in the interest of these corporations, and, whenever a serious attempt is made, it will be found that their political power is too strong for any machinery which can as yet be brought to bear upon them.

THE SIEGE OF METZ.

[THE siege of Metz, with the battles which preceded it, it is now clear, decided the contest between France and Germany; in other words was the most momentous event of modern European history. No clear and satisfactory account of it has, however, yet appeared, and we are, therefore, about to present our readers with three or four papers on it for which we think we may fairly claim a high degree of authority.]

I.

BAZAINE'S ATTEMPT TO RETREAT.

BERLIN, Jan. 17, 1871.

So rapidly do the events of modern warfare succeed each other, and so closely are they connected, that its science requires their history to be written with equal celerity. It is owing to this fact that I am enabled to-day to write a tolerably accurate narrative of the siege of Metz from a mass of as yet unpublished German official reports and documents which have been placed at my disposal.*

The army of which Marshal Bazaine assumed the chief command on the 12th of August was the *élite* of the French forces, consisting of seventeen divisions of infantry, each division having thirteen battalions, each battalion eight hundred men. Besides, it had five hundred pieces of field artillery, a hundred and fifty mitrailleuses, and several cavalry divisions. In all, the army was composed of more than two hundred and twenty thousand men, among them the French Imperial Guard. The Emperor accompanied it in person, while under Bazaine commanded three marshals and three corps generals, who were assisted in counsel by General Changarnier, a man of very considerable military ability, who had grown gray in the African service, and a patriot in the strictest sense of the word. Besides this army, Metz was occupied by a garrison of over twenty thousand men, partly of the Garde Mobile, but mostly regular troops—a body amply sufficient for the defence of the fortress. It had as post-commander General Coffinières, whose name, subsequent to the capitulation, has been stigmatized with opprobrium. In the French camp, however, there was no unity of counsel. The defeat of the French General Frossard at Spicheren on the 6th of August had rendered the French position so critical that the Emperor determined to withdraw to the Camp of Châlons without delay, and, uniting with the fragments of the army of MacMahon and the corps of Faily and Douay, to fight a decisive battle in Champagne. The plan was communicated to Paris, and at first received the approbation of the Council of Ministers, but two days

afterwards a letter of M. Ollivier informed the Emperor that, after mature deliberation, the Council was of opinion that it had been too hasty in approving the retreat of the army to Châlons, that to abandon Lorraine would produce a deplorable effect upon public spirit in France, and he requested the Emperor to renounce his project. The Emperor for a time ceded to this counsel.

However, the French people were greatly affected by the news of the reverses which their arms had suffered, and the Emperor, seeing himself held responsible for these disasters, thought to shelter himself in future from similar accusations by giving over the chief command of the Army of the Rhine to Marshal Bazaine.

Bazaine saw the importance of repassing the Moselle and concentrating at Châlons. Time, however, had been lost, the weather was unfavorable, and the prompt execution of the order to retreat was retarded by the immense amount of baggage with which the army was encumbered; and it was not until the evening of the 13th that the entire army was concentrated about Metz. To oppose the French the Germans had two armies, composed almost entirely of troops of North Germany. The First, under command of General Steinmetz, consisted of the First, Seventh, and Eighth Army Corps—about one hundred thousand strong. A few weeks after Metz had been invested, the third division of reserves, including a brigade of cavalry Landwehr commanded by Lieutenant-General Von Kummer, was added to this army. The Second, under command of Prince Frederic Charles of Prussia, consisted of the Second, Third, Fourth, Ninth, Tenth, Twelfth or Saxon, and the Garde Corps—about two hundred and forty thousand strong. These two armies were under the superior command of the King of Prussia. The plan of operations, however, was naturally dictated by General Moltke, his chief of staff. The question is yet involved in obscurity whether or not it was the intention of the Germans to force a fight on the 14th on the east side of Metz; and this question will probably be found to be intimately connected with the withdrawal from General Steinmetz of the command of the First Army. The means we at present have of coming to a conclusion lead very strongly to the conjecture that a battle was not anticipated at headquarters. The headquarters of the King were, on the 13th, transferred from St. Avold, on the direct road to Metz, to Herry, a point southeast of Metz, on the direct road to Pont-à-Mousson, where it remained the whole of the two following days, to await the movements of the troops that were to be in readiness to cross the Moselle in order to intercept the retreat of the French to Verdun. The King, with General Moltke and the rest of the staff, remained the whole of the 14th at Herry, and only repaired to the field of battle after the news of the battle had reached headquarters, whereas in every other engagement during the war that could be anticipated, the King was personally present if it was in his power.

The action of the French troops in all the engagements was paralyzed by their absolute ignorance of the position and strength of the Germans, who very well knew how to conceal their movements behind formidable detachments of cavalry, which deployed before them in every direction, so that the French, notwithstanding the most persevering researches, never really knew where the main body of the Germans was, or, consequently, where to produce the greatest effect; and the promptness and rapidity of the German marches contributed in no small degree to this uncertainty. Neither on the 14th nor on the 16th did the French imagine that they had to do with almost the entire available force of the Germans, and they allowed their precious time to be wasted in dilatory action. And here it may as well be said that the whole history of the siege of Metz is a history of the greatest alertness and most energetic action on the one hand, and the most culpable weakness, indecision, and indolence on the other. Already the arrival of parts of the army of Prince Frederic Charles at Gorze was announced, and German cavalry had penetrated to Briey, when, on the morning of the 14th, Bazaine began to withdraw the main body of his army across the Moselle.

The part of the French general in this emergency was clear—either to give no battle at all on the 14th, or give battle with the whole army. If he adhered to his purpose of retreating to Verdun, he should not accept a battle on the right bank of the river, but cross it as rapidly as possible. Metz was amply sufficient to protect him from the advance of the Germans in the rear, and a battle would retard his movements at least a day. If, on the other hand, it had been his purpose to make a stand at Metz, and contest the line of the Moselle, he should on that day have attacked the Germans with his whole army. In the beginning, he was certain to be successful, and certainly not earlier than on the 15th would the Germans have sufficient forces to withstand him, although only unimportant bodies

*I may as well add that I have been assisted in forming my impressions by my personal presence at all three of the principal engagements about Metz, and at the capitulation, and by intimate relations with quite a number of prominent Germans who, in one way or another, have exercised an influence over the fate of Metz. I have also very carefully examined "Der Krieg um Metz. Von einem preussischen General. Berlin: 1871. Ernst Siegfried Mittler und Sohn. Königl. Buchhandlung," a curious pamphlet, which, whether really written by a Prussian general or by an apologist of Bazaine, or, as is most probable, by both, gives evidence of military talent, and, when compared with the official reports, of a very intimate knowledge of the subject. I do not, however, pretend to say that I shall not, in the course of time, modify some of the opinions here expressed respecting the military operations about Metz, on obtaining access to more complete French reports than that of Bazaine, lately published at Brussels, who appears to have had no other purpose in writing it than to apologize for surrendering the fortress.—J. L. H.

had actually crossed the river. Both armies would, under such circumstances, have stood on the line from Metz to Saarbrück, and the French would have had the inside track. But Metz gave Bazaine the free choice of a battle with good prospects of success or of an undisturbed retreat. The part of the Germans was equally clear: in case they found the French in retreat, to march their main body across the river, leaving barely sufficient forces on the east side to retard the movements of the French as long as possible. Could this be accomplished without a bloody battle?

The Germans had been very carefully bringing forward their troops, and the First Army, the First Corps of which had just arrived, had advanced opposite Metz; while the Second Army, the Second Corps of which had not yet arrived, was in close union with it, but southwards above and below Pont-à-Mousson, extending along the river and ready to cross it. On the morning of the 14th, the Germans made a strong reconnaissance against the French, and finding them in retreat pressed them to within five miles of the walls of Metz. The First Army Corps followed the French, and at two o'clock attacked the Division Metman of the Third Corps. The French gave battle; the Fourth Corps, which had almost crossed the river, partly returned to repel this attack, taking up a position in front of Fort St. Julien. The engagement lasted until nightfall, the Germans having driven the French from the greater part of the field of battle, which was more sanguinary than any during the war of 1866.

From Metz there are three roads leading to Verdun. Two of these unite at Gravelotte at a distance of nine miles from the city: the southernmost leads direct to Verdun over Rezonville, Vionville, and Mars-la-Tour, and is the shortest of all; the next, a little longer, passes over Doncourt and Jarny to Étain, where it unites with the third and northernmost, and longest, which leads from Metz almost in a northerly direction along the Moselle to Woippy, thence defiles through the woods for a long distance over Saulny to St. Privat-la-Montagne, thence over Ste. Marie-aux-Chênes to Auboué into the valley of the Orne, thence again defiles to Briey, where the road divides, one part leading in a northwesterly direction over Longuion and Montmédy to Sedan, and the other leading due westwardly to Étain, uniting there with the middle route to Verdun. All these roads are wide and excellent. The movements of the French army on the left bank of the river continued during the next day, Bazaine having selected the two southernmost of these roads for his line of march. The Second and Sixth Corps were moved in échelon behind the cavalry division of General De Forton, who had cleared the road so far as Mars-la-Tour, while the division of General De Barail cleared the second road to Conflans-en-Jarnisy; the Imperial Guard was stationed in front of Gravelotte.

After having examined the field of battle on the morning of the 15th, and satisfied himself that the French had withdrawn their forces, the King returned to Herry and gave orders to cross the river. The First Corps remained before Metz, while the other corps of the First Army, the Seventh and Eighth, were moved to the river, and bridges were built for their passage near Corny. On that day the Third Corps crossed at Pont-à-Mousson and moved down the river to Novéant, where a narrow but serviceable pass leads over Gorze to the heights on the left bank of the river; the Ninth Corps followed the Third and reached Vandières, three miles north of Pont-à-Mousson; the Tenth Corps marched from Pont-à-Mousson through Thiaucourt, towards the road to Verdun; the Garde crossed above Pont-à-Mousson; and the Saxons were still on the march to that town. The Second Corps was still at Forbach, and the Fourth never arrived in time to take part in any of the three great battles about Metz. On the part of the Germans, the purpose was to attempt by every means in their power to bring the French to a stand between the Moselle and the Meuse, and compel them to a decisive battle; and, although it was only late at night when the different corps of the Second Army reached the respective points above-mentioned, the march was recommenced at daybreak, in order to reach the plateau between the Moselle and the Orne in the direction of Verdun.

The French knowing that, on the morning of the previous day, the bulk of the German army was on the right bank of the river, twenty-five miles distant from their position, seemed to think they had time until the 17th to march the army, about two hundred thousand men, to Verdun, and that they could remain quiet during the 16th and allow their train, which was moving along the northernmost and longest road, to have a good start. This inactivity of the French and the energy of the Germans rendered a battle on the 16th inevitable. The concentration of the French Third and Fourth Corps on the plateau was not yet complete when, at nine o'clock in the morning, the attack was commenced by

the German Third Corps, which, having marched for two hours from Gorze through narrow mountain roads, found the French stationed south of the road to Verdun along the heights from Tronville, to a point south of Rezonville. Upon the appearance of the Germans, Forton's cavalry division fell back upon the Second Corps. The battle was conducted on the German side by the Third Corps alone until half-past twelve o'clock; Tronville was carried as well as Mars-la-Tour, and thus the road to Verdun was reached. On this day time was computed in a much more valuable coin than money—an hour cost a division of cavalry. The attack on Vionville was abortive, and the Third Corps scarcely able to hold out any longer, when two cavalry divisions, coming from Thiaucourt, were brought into the fight, and went forward to the attack in the most reckless manner, broke through the French line, and rode over their batteries, and were finally almost annihilated; but in this way an hour was gained. Towards three o'clock the Tenth Corps came to the support of the left wing, over Puxieux and Mars-la-Tour, towards the woods north of Vionville, in the direction of Bruville, while the Ninth Corps came up on the right along the Bois de Vionville, and commenced the attack on Flavigny and Vionville; Vionville was taken, but the attack on Flavigny was repelled. At half-past four parts of the Seventh and Eighth Corps appeared still further to the right, having crossed the Moselle at Corny, climbed the sides of the mountain, and marched along devious paths through the Bois de Chevaux and Bois des Ognons, and gained possession of these woods; but they could not come out of them to the attack on Rezonville. The appearance of these new troops, however, encouraged the renewed attack upon Flavigny, which, finally, between seven and eight o'clock, fell into the hands of the Germans. Meantime, the attack of the Tenth Corps, forming the left wing, against Doncourt over Bruville, to obtain possession of the second road to Verdun by way of Conflans and Étain, was most decisively repelled, and that corps driven back to a point north of Mars-la-Tour; but this position it asserted up to the close of the battle. At the end of the day the French held the line Gravelotte, Rezonville, St. Marcel, Bruville; the Germans held the line opposite them, Bois des Ognons, Flavigny, Vionville, the woods north of that village, and the ground north of Mars-la-Tour. The soldiers of both the contending armies fought most courageously—at no time was there any such disorder as announces discouragement. The losses on both sides were equal, but equally great; few trophies were gained. The entire French army had been in position; the Germans had only three full corps and parts of two others—at the most, a hundred and twenty thousand men; yet with this inferior force they had not only been able to gain ground, but to obtain definitive possession of the Verdun road and cut off one of the principal avenues of retreat of the French. That they were able to do so can only be ascribed to the faults of the French commander. It appears as if Bazaine on that day made up in personal daring for his deficiency in military skill; for, with his entire suite, he was so entangled in the cavalry fight, at two o'clock, that he was saving his life at a time when it was absolutely essential for him to give his attention to the conduct of the battle.*

Correspondence.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FROM A LIFE INSURANCE OFFICER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an elaborate article entitled "The Condition of Life Insurance among Us," the *Nation* of the 26th inst. presents what it believes to be the dangers which threaten the safety of life insurance companies in this country. These dangers, as it believes, are two in number. The first it finds in the plan usually employed by the several companies for compensating its officers and agents, and the second (which it admits it hardly regards as a momentary danger) in the fact that their large investments in mortgages of city property have done and are doing much to swell the market value of such property, which value in this way often becomes speculative and unsubstantial.

It does not question the moral and social advantages of life insurance, nor the soundness of the great leading principles on which all companies are constructed. These are, indeed, now universally conceded. The method of compensation complained of is that of giving commissions upon the business procured or transacted, and it finds this method prevailing not only with reference to agents in the field, but to the home

* How sadly Bazaine was in ignorance of the purpose of the whole engagement, and of the numbers of the enemy, appears from his letter to the Emperor on the 17th of August, giving an account of the battle, in his "Rapport Sommaire," p. 6.

officers and employees of the several companies, from the president to the youngest clerk. It is evident that the larger the immediate receipts, the larger will be the present remuneration. The danger is, that to multiply present profits policies may be issued upon unsound lives, and that through this practice the mortality experience of such companies in years to come will exceed the mortality rates upon which their premiums are based. From this it appears beyond cavil that whatever officer is to pass finally upon an application for insurance, and whoever, in fact, is to make recommendation with reference to the action of that officer, should have his judgment as untrammelled and free as that of a juror or judge. To all such officers a percentage of receipts is as inappropriate as would be a *per-capita* compensation to a court in criminal proceedings—so many dollars for each conviction. But who are these officers who have to do with the issue of the policies? Different offices are differently organized, with their duties variously distributed, but ordinarily they are the president and his assistants, the secretary, the principal medical adviser or director, and the various medical examiners scattered throughout the country. These officers, then, should not experience a single farthing's immediate profit or loss by the approval or denial of a single application. If they have the interest we are discussing, they are imperilling, as we have seen, the future life of the company, and they are hourly tempted, too, to present extravagance and waste in the procurement of applications. The custom, so far as it exists, is emphatically and radically wrong. The interest as well as the purpose of the officers should be to make the company sound and reliable, and protect it from all injury, as well as to enlarge its usefulness. Every man in the principal office should be paid by salary only, and every medical examiner should be paid the same fee, and paid, too, only by the company, whether his recommendation be in the affirmative or negative. His appointment should be made by the company, and that only after it is abundantly satisfied of his personal integrity and professional experience and skill. Thus, while we recognize the principle involved in the first danger suggested by the *Nation*, we would avoid it not by a full change in the payment of commissions, but by applying the principle to all persons employed by the companies save agents or solicitors only. These last can surely be justly paid by commission, and we fail to discover how such payment can seriously prejudice the interests of the companies, while their payment by salary would inevitably persuade many of them remote from supervision to indolence, misrepresentation, and fraud. We believe that more money would be wasted in unearned salaries, were the present practice changed in this particular, than is now lost through the improper influence of agents of companies in which no other persons beside themselves are entitled to a percentage of receipts. We see no danger whatever in this direction to companies whose business is conducted in the manner we have defined and approved; but there is such inherent hazard and weakness in such as, through the payment to them of percentages on premiums, encourage their officers to lavish expenditures and the insurance of impaired lives, that we wonder not at the failure of the Great Western and the Farmers' and Mechanics', but only that others did not tumble earlier than they; and we would advise our readers, in selecting companies for insurance, to make careful enquiry upon the points we have been considering.

The second danger suggested by the *Nation* has already been stated, but cannot, as we believe, be regarded as one of a serious nature. We confess, in fact, that we do not really believe in its existence. In the large populous centres of the country, from their earliest settlement, real estate has been advancing in value, with uneven yet rapid strides. This fact is a familiar one, as is the anecdote related by Dr. Franklin, which well illustrates, in a humorous way, one view of the safety of real estate mortgages in the leading cities. We repeat the story in the best spirit, or rather allow the Doctor so to do in his own language, from his Autobiography. The facts occurred some forty-five years prior to their narration, and Franklin's remark upon his friend Mickle's advice was after abundant opportunity to judge of its soundness:

"There are croakers in every country always boding its ruin. Such a one there lived in Philadelphia—a person of note, an elderly man, with a wise look and a very grave manner of speaking. His name was Samuel Mickle. This gentleman, a stranger to me, stopped me one day at my door, and asked me if I was the young man who had lately opened a new printing-house. Being answered in the affirmative, he said he was sorry for me, because it was an expensive undertaking, and the expense would be lost, for Philadelphia was a sinking place, the people already half-bankrupt, or near being so—all the appearances to the contrary, such as new buildings and the rise of rents, being to his certain knowledge fallacious, for they were, in fact, among the things that would ruin us. Then he gave me such a detail of misfortunes now existing, or that were soon to exist, that he left me half-melancholy. Had I known him before I engaged

in this business, probably I should never have done it. This person continued to live in this decaying place, and to declaim in the same strain, refusing for many years to buy a house there, because all was going to destruction; and at last I had the pleasure of seeing him give five times as much for one as he might have bought it for when he first began croaking."

We believe there is no safer investment than that secured by first mortgage upon first class city property worth at least double its amount. But while we think the objection just considered is not well taken, we heartily commend the conclusion reached by the *Nation*, that the public should require every life insurance company "to possess large means of its own to give some guarantee to insurers, both as a financial security and as a means of insuring the interest and watchfulness of the stockholders and their representatives, the board of directors." This is the sum of the whole matter. The managers of a company must be peculiarly interested in its integrity and soundness rather than in its volume of business, and must themselves be supervised by directors who likewise have large monetary interest in the solvency and safety of the institution. The directions and demands of the stockholders are more imperious and authoritative than the regrets of disappointed policy-holders, and we believe that among the signs of the times there is none clearer or more appropriate and encouraging than this, that life insurance companies must hereafter give larger pledges to the insured than they have done—pledges that all the contracts made by them shall be fulfilled, and that all the officers by them employed shall honestly, prudently, and economically manage the business, that all liabilities can easily be discharged.

Let public statutes, then, provide that no dividends shall ever be made to stockholders which shall impair to the value of a single dollar the capital invested by them, but that it shall always be kept intact for the indemnity of the policy-holders, and life insurance will be lifted out of the heated competition and conflicts of irresponsible and reckless managers, who, without personal investment or hazard of any sort whatever, ask policy-holders to insure themselves and pay to them large commissions for that privilege. The experience of the public with reference to fire companies is now being repeated with reference to life associations, and this experience demands that capital shall insure to policy-holders the integrity and fidelity of companies and their officers.

PLURAL.

WEST POINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Whenever a discussion arises as to the unsatisfactory condition of the West Point Academy, it is plainly seen that the root of the evil is to be found in the laws which regulate the appointment of cadets. Allow me to suggest a very simple plan, which, while retaining Congressional patronage, would, I think, meet many of the objections to it.

Let us suppose, for example, that ten appointments are to be made from the State of New York in the class which is to enter the Academy next summer. Let a law be passed allowing each Senator and Representative from the State to nominate one candidate for a cadetship; and let a competent board, to be appointed by the President, or by the Governor, select from the thirty-one candidates so nominated the ten best qualified to enter the Academy. By this plan, to be applied of course to every State, each Senator and Representative in Congress would annually nominate a candidate, and would, in view of the examination, be careful to nominate a promising one.

Nine-tenths of the money now wasted in instructing cadets, who, at the end of the first year, are proved to be unfit for the school, would thus be saved; and the men trained at the Academy would be worthy of the education it offers.—Respectfully yours,

B.
Feb. 11, 1871.

[Some Congressmen have, to their honor, opened these nominations to competitive examination; but even if this practice were general, it would not diminish the value of our correspondent's suggestion. On the other hand, even under B.'s system, what is to prevent the Congressman, when his nominee is convicted for lying, from bullying the War Department into remitting the sentence?—ED. NATION.]

GOVERNMENT SALE OF ARMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Friedrich Kapp, in his letter of January 18, published in the *Nation* of February 9, repeats the charge against the United States Government of having sold contraband of war, especially fire-arms, to the

French. Would it not be well to say that this has been denied upon very good authority? It is true that cases of arms, with the sign of the Government factory on the cases, have been sold and shipped to France. Our Government sold the arms then, as it always does, to private parties, who, in turn, sold them to the French. It was no surreptitious transaction, nor was it a feigned one.

I mention this simply to correct an erroneous statement made in good faith by the distinguished writer. Were we to discuss the law of neutrality as it stands, and as it ought to stand, it is very probable that I should be found more strict than Dr. Kapp, as it would appear from his very letter. Here we have to do with the simple question, Has our Government sold arms to a belligerent, or has it made any extraordinary sales? The answer, I believe, is, It has not.

I cannot help seizing upon this opportunity to say that, immediately after peace shall have been concluded, the subject of neutrality ought to be taken in hand, whether officially or by agreement, among international jurists, but in either case authoritatively, and ought to be brought nearer to a state agreeing with the growing inter-connection of nations. The modern law of nations rests first of all on the principle of neighborliness; and, as our civilization advances, so does good neighborhood become more important, and so, in turn, does the subject of neutrality grow in comprehensive importance.

F. L.

New York, February 11.

Notes.

In justice to the writer of the review of Parker's "Historic Americans," in No. 292 of the *Nation*, we note a typographical error which would regularly have found its place among the errata at the close of the volume. In the sixth line of the second paragraph in the left-hand column of page 77, it is stated that Arnold was in Virginia "from January to June, 1780." This should, of course, read 1781. This error, it may be remarked, is not in Mr. Parker's favor.—Chicago having spent over \$8,000 in purchasing, importing, and arranging the theological library of the late Dr. Hengstenberg, of Berlin, has deposited it in the building of the University at Chicago, and aims to make it the "nucleus of a Universal or General Theological Library, to be managed and controlled without any sectarian prejudices against, or special advantages to, any religious body, persons, or denomination." Since the securing so valuable a collection was really a benefit conferred upon the whole country, the Association which has interested itself in this enterprise feels justified in asking subscriptions to its capital stock, by which it hopes to pay for the library and for additions to it. A circular which describes the character of the upwards of twelve thousand volumes gathered by Dr. Hengstenberg, and as yet uncatalogued, may be had of Mr. J. Young Scammon, President, or Mr. W. W. Everts, jr., Secretary, of the Free Theological Library of Chicago, to whom also subscriptions may be sent.

—A "Life of Gen. Robert E. Lee," by John Esten Cooke, will be published this month by Messrs. D. Appleton & Co.—Messrs. Pott & Amery publish immediately "Musings on the 'Christian Year' and 'Lyra Innocentium,'" by Miss C. M. Yonge, to which several friends of Keble have added some recollections of him; also, "A Concordance to the 'Christian Year,'" uniform with the preceding; and "Seven Lenten Sermons on Psalm LI," by the Rev. W. W. How, M.A.—We must refer readers to the forthcoming number of the *Book-Buyer* for full particulars of the simultaneous publication of the "Speaker's Commentary" by John Murray, in London, and, from stereotype plates, by Charles Scribner & Co., in this city. This work has been in preparation some eight years, employing upwards of thirty clergymen of the Church of England, with other co-laborers, and is designed to be a plain and popular commentary of the Scriptures, devoid of purely scholarly discussions, but correcting the manifest mistranslations of the authorized version of 1611. The American publishers hope to compress the Pentateuch into one volume, royal octavo, of 1,000 pages, which, in cloth, will be sold at the low price of \$5. Nine other volumes, at the same price, will, it is hoped, embrace the entire Commentary. The typography will be adapted to the eyesight of elderly readers.—Mr. Frederic Louis Ritter calls our attention to a possible misapprehension of the remark, in our last issue, concerning the appearance of his "History of Music" at the same time with Mr. John K. Paine's lectures on the same subject in Boston. Mr. Ritter says the greater part of his work was prepared and delivered as lectures more than three years ago, in his regular course of instruction at Vassar College. We had no intention of implying any other than a merely accidental relation between his book and the Boston lectures.

—It is pleasant to witness the yearly growth of the Wisconsin Historical Society, whose seventeenth annual report is before us. We have more than once referred to its valuable library, which now contains 45,530 volumes, documents, and pamphlets, including the unusual and (west of the Alleghenies) unequalled number of 1,601 volumes of bound newspapers. Three of these last were printed in the seventeenth century, 153 in the eighteenth, and the remainder during the present century. The principle that unto him that hath shall be given, is the best guide for would-be donors to libraries as to universities, and *a fortiori* to would-be founders of either. If it is duly heeded in this instance, the Wisconsin Society is likely to establish the strongest claim on the liberality of the West, at least.

—A contribution to the comparative legislation of the United States will be found in "The Rights of Property of Married Women under the Laws of Kentucky," a paper read by H. Marshall Buford before the Lexington Bar Association, and now published by request in pamphlet form (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.) The attempts to remedy special cases of hardship and injustice growing out of the common law in regard to the *feme covert*, appear to have introduced much confusion into the statutes of Kentucky, and the author appends as a substitute for them an act by which he would regulate the property of married women. It is characteristic of the State's backwardness in reaping the benefits and accepting the fact of emancipation that the existing laws give a man a life-estate in the slaves of his wife.

—We observe that the *Evening Post* makes the statement that in and after the year 1872 the standard of admission to Harvard College is to be considerably raised. Now, although the classes at Cambridge are so large, it is nevertheless true that, as regards the thoroughness and the scope of the examinations for admission, Harvard may be said to be about one year ahead of other American colleges; and it is a question of a good deal of interest whether the standard of admission can with profit to the college be still further raised. There is no American college of high pretension and of tried and approved excellence and usefulness which is so rich, or rather so far from poverty, as to be able to dispense with the revenue derived from the fees which its undergraduates pay for tuition. All students, even the most careless and the dullest, everywhere take pride, of course, in believing themselves members of the college which makes the most stringent demands upon them, and whose matriculation papers and degrees are hardest to get; and no doubt the rule holds good up to a certain point, that severity of examination attracts candidates and swells the size of classes and, by consequence, the college revenues. To determine just where this point of highest attraction is to be found—just where severity will, for a time at least, work damage to the college treasury, must, we imagine, be a task of great difficulty. As long as the opinion is prevalent that at twenty-two or twenty-three years a young man should have finished his general studies and begun to work for his living, our college authorities will consider anxiously and long before venturing to take upon themselves, and to throw upon the preparatory schools, more work than is now laid upon school and college to perform. It must be frankly confessed, we take it, that the country is not as yet quite ready for a true university, and that the friends of higher education must still for a while take counsel of prudence and be content to make haste slowly.

—We have seen, we suppose, the same circulars and reports as those upon which is based the statement made by the *Post*, and since reading that statement have given them a renewed examination, in order to discover whether in the judgment of the Cambridge authorities the time has come for making further demands upon candidates; or, rather, in order to see whether they think it so near at hand as 1872. So far as we can learn, the *Post* is mistaken, and intending applicants for admission to Harvard may dismiss any apprehensions which the *Post* has caused them. In 1872, as we read the circular containing the "requisites for admission," candidates who have passed the ordinary examination and secured their admission may, if they so choose, request the college to examine them in the following subjects: The "Odes" of Horace; any three books of "Livy;" Cicero's "De Senectute;" the "Apology" and "Crito" of Plato; the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh books of the "Iliad." "No candidate," says the circular, "will be required to present himself at these additional examinations;" but every one who hopes to obtain distinction in Greek and Latin and intends to graduate with special honors in the department of classical studies is "strongly advised" to pass them, and is promised that, if he do pass them, he shall be placed "in advanced sections in Latin and Greek immediately on entering college." As for the ordinary

examinations, it appears that they will be, except in two particulars, the same in the future—in the immediate future, at all events—that they have been in the recent past: there will be required a knowledge of the elements of physical geography, "which is indispensable for the intelligent study of history," and a knowledge of the use of logarithms, "familiarity with which is required at every step in the study of mathematics and physical science, while the necessary drill can be much better given in the schools than in college." These new requisites are to be requisites at the examination in June next and thenceforward. There is, indeed, another change made in the list of requirements; but it is a change which amounts neither to an increase in them nor a diminution: it is hereafter to be permitted to the student to choose whether he will come better prepared in mathematics than is now necessary and with less of Latin and Greek or whether he will pass the regular examination. In past years men have been turned away who, while they had not read all of Virgil, for example, or all of "Xenophon's Anabasis," were very well qualified to go on with advanced sections in mathematics, and better qualified than the vast majority of the graduates of our classical schools to pursue with advantage chemistry and the allied sciences. Some Western schools turn out such men. We have not space to explain the new scheme; but any one interested—and the subject is interesting to educators and to educated men generally—may easily procure the circular and the reports which are our authority for these statements we have made.

—Whoever procures them will find in them many things suggestive and important, and Harvard men will find them full of encouragement. The president's report, in particular, is as cheerful as a brisk breeze, and will give to all friends of the college strong grounds of hope—hope that will not be dashed, but on the contrary increased, by the concluding passages, in which President Eliot, after expressing gratitude towards some munificent benefactors for their gifts, asks with an air of perfect confidence for some three hundred and fifty thousand dollars more! This is to be expended in building a new hall of lecture-rooms and laboratories; a library building for the divinity school—which, by the way, the churches ought to pay for—a lecture-room and working-room at the Botanic Garden; and an addition to Gore Hall, where is deposited the college library, which—badly as it needs money to keep it even with the literature of the age—now overflows its limits. It would appear, too, that what Mr. Eliot asks for he is not unlikely to get. Since the making of his report two persons have come forward with gifts which secure the immediate erection of two dormitories, which both for convenience and for architectural effect will probably be superior to anything now owned by the university. That alone would not be much to say, though a taste for Massachusetts Hall and for Holden Chapel may be acquired—in fact, has been acquired by many persons—their ugliness being that of another day than the present. So of Harvard Hall, also, which has undergone some changes that improve its external aspect, which, the President remarks, "had not been pleasing." Nobody would have expostulated earnestly, we should say, if he had asserted that it bordered upon being an affliction to every eye. What with the erection of Thayer Hall, Holyoke House, and the two new dormitories, the proposed removal of Dane Hall, the alterations in Harvard Hall and College House, the cutting-off of the vistas of the college yard, and the giving to it—happy substitution—a look of quadrangular snugness, at the same time that the Appleton Chapel and Gore Hall are screened from observation—what with all these alterations and improvements, the older graduates will hardly recognize their ancient haunts.

—Other interesting changes, which we shall note desultorily, the report chronicles. "The Governing Boards have simply accommodated the statutes to the changed opinions and habits of the community at large," by ordaining that students who spend Sunday with their parents or with friends whom their parents choose may go to church or not as the parents or friends concur with the students in deciding; and, furthermore, have ordained that students who on Sundays as on other days are within the jurisdiction of the college are to be compelled to go to church but once instead of twice. The office of dean of the college faculty has been created, and the president of the university is relieved of much of the strictly clerical and administrative labor of the college proper. The various recesses have been abolished, and the winter vacation shortened to two weeks, so that there may be a summer vacation of three months. Thus time is given instructors and pupils for independent labor—which it is well for the community of letters and science that the former should have opportunity to attempt, and well for the latter themselves that they should be encouraged to attempt. After 1872, the university will give no

ordinary degree, whether in Arts, Law, Divinity, Medicine, or Science, without an examination—a needed change, which will make the higher degrees mean something; something more than that a graduate has been willing to pay five dollars for the right to put "A.M." after his name instead of "A.B." Salaries, President Eliot says, have been raised, and evidently not too soon. A tutor still gives his work for a salary of but a thousand dollars a year, though probably there is no tutor at Cambridge who might not get considerably more money by teaching in a public or private school; and probably there is none who can live comfortably at Cambridge rates of living without spending a larger sum than his salary—a sum which has to be earned by work outside of his tutorial work, and by work which perhaps is not detrimental to the right performance of his tutorial duties, but is to some extent incompatible with the advancement in knowledge which is to fit him for collegiate promotion. It appears, however, that a change for the better in respect of this is acknowledged necessary. Of the system of University Lectures, newly established, the report remarks that they are a great addition to the teaching power of the university; and it goes on to insist that "if the university is hereafter to provide advanced instruction in History, Philosophy, Art, the Humanities, and Pure Science, funds must be provided from the income of which each instructor may be paid a moderate stipend." As yet, the zeal of the friends of higher education has kept the list of lecturers full; but, certainly, it is not to be expected that "so great an amount of labor will be performed by thirty or forty teachers, year after year, without any adequate compensation." To give to the thorough and ardent student information and help which he cannot find in books—to aid and supplement the labor and acquirement of true students, not to give to ignorance a smattering of knowledge—is the design of those who planned the system of University Lectures; and, of course, in a community such as any of our American communities—or, for that matter, such as any community anywhere—it is necessary to wait a while before pronouncing the system profitable and a success. It is earnestly to be hoped that it may be. And it is easy to hope too confidently, and to be too impatient. Perhaps a better employment for money than that of setting this system of lectures upon a sound financial basis it might be difficult to find, for few things are more certain than that there never was a false opinion than that which one used to see expressed by the picture in the old "reading-books": a tree was figured with its roots in view as well as its trunk and branches, and for roots, trunk, and branches there were names deemed appropriate; "academies" was the name labelled upon the trunk; the topmost twigs were marked "colleges," and for the roots from which these sprang the name was "common schools." That the relation of the university to the primary school is—not very obviously, perhaps, but most truly—as that of the mother to the child, and not as that of the child to the mother, is a truth for which a wider acceptance among us is to be wished.

—The death of Miss Alice Cary, which occurred on Sunday, not only leaves a regrettable vacancy in the ranks of American poetesses, but breaks up the living partnership of work and fame which she had so long enjoyed with her sister Phœbe. They came of original Massachusetts stock transplanted to Ohio, and began writing poetry for country newspapers at the early ages of eighteen and seventeen respectively. Their removal to New York, some twenty years since, brought them into better relations with the literary world, and enabled them to publish those numerous works, both in prose and verse, which have confirmed their reputation and won for them the affection of a wide circle of readers. The writings of the deceased—and we say it without insinuating any comparison with the survivor—abound in womanly sympathy for all humankind, which overflows for those who need it most, the poor, the outcast, the sick, the demented; and in innocence as well as kindness—a sort of incapacity to dwell on the dark side of things, or to view nature (which she painted better than she did character) as anything but a wholly lovely creation. Her poetry, without being of the first order in form or substance, was pure and graceful, and made those better and happier who felt its influence. The friendly intimacy between these sisters and Mr. Greeley—part of whose church-going it has been to take tea with them every Sunday evening—should not be forgotten, nor its probable effect in lightening his incessant labors, and preserving, as far as a politician and the editor of a daily paper can preserve, his sweetness of temper.

—Those whose charity commonly takes the form of a *quid pro quo* have a good opportunity of contributing to the French fund by purchasing one or more copies of Father Hyacinthe's London Address ("France et Allemagne: Discours prononcé à Londres, le 20 décembre, 1870"), which may be had for twenty-five cents of Messrs. Macmillan & Co. or the trade

generally. The words are those of a man who, if not possessed of an absolutely clear vision, is able to rise above the feelings of the hour, and to discuss in a beautifully calm and philosophical manner the relations between the two contending nations in Europe. The discourse is devoted to disproving the assertion that the present war is essentially one of races and religions—a position first and at the outset assumed by the French themselves, from Napoleon to Laboulaye, and never echoed by the Germans unless in defiance. Father Hyacinthe in reality, therefore, argues for peace with his own countrymen, barely addressing a few words of warning to the Germans lest they take into their veins the poison of military despotism. He does not think Alsace and Lorraine necessary to the greatness of France any more than the division of Germany—"je n'ai point ressenti," he says, "les angoisses patriotiques qui ont suivi Sadowa"—nevertheless he considers it a point of honor not voluntarily to abandon those provinces. Nowhere, he remarks, has he seen religious toleration as between Catholic and Protestant so perfect as in Germany, and of Döllinger he speaks in the highest terms for his resistance to Papal infallibility. In short, all his allusions to the German character are so generous, and to the French character so modest, that one's respect for the author cannot fail to be heightened on reading this little pamphlet. It concludes with rejoicing in the freedom of Rome, in the unity of Italy as in that of Germany, and in the probable regeneration of France under the form of a conservative republic or of a liberal monarchy—"deux mots qui expriment presque une même idée."

—The following are some of the more important English publications either recently or soon to be issued. A "Life of Ambrose Bonwicke," by his father, edited by John C. B. Mayor; "Life of Dr. Adoniram Judson," the famous missionary to Burmah, revised (we suppose from some one of the American biographies) and edited by Horatius Bonar; "Life and Adventures of Count Beugnot," minister of state under Napoleon I., from the French by Miss Yonge; "Life and Letters of William Bewick," the artist, by Thomas Landseer, in two volumes; "Mémorial of Daniel Mac-lise, R.A.," by W. J. O'Driscoll, who gives some wood-cuts of unpublished sketches drawn by this overrated artist in letters to his friends; "Miscellaneous and Posthumous Works of the late Thomas Henry Buckle," edited, with a biographical notice, by Ellen Taylor. In travels a few titles: "Norway and the Vöring-Fos;" "Impressions of Greece," by Sir Thomas Wyse; "Turkish Harems and Circassian Homes," by Mrs. Harvey, with colored illustrations; "Recollections of Society in France and England," by Lady Clementina Davies; and "The Playground of Europe," by Leslie Stephen, late president of the Alpine Club, whose "playground" is the one in question. Among historical works the following: "Student's Manual of the History of India," from the earliest period to the present, by Meadows Taylor; "The Historical Geography of Europe," by Edward A. Freeman; "English and Scotch Historical Ballads," with introduction, notes, and glossary, edited for the use of schools by Arthur Milman, and likely to be instructive in more ways than one; "History of the Gothic Revival," especially in its relation to the taste for mediæval architecture in England during the last two centuries, by Charles L. Eastlake; and "The Ceramic Gallery," by William Chaffers, comprising six hundred illustrations of rare, curious, and choice examples of pottery and porcelain, of all ages, from the British, South Kensington, and other museums and collections, together with historical notices and descriptions. Two of Mr. Murray's announcements deserve separate mention: "A Copious English Grammar, a methodical, analytical, and historical treatise on the orthography, prosody, inflections, and syntax of the English Tongue," from the German of Prof. Maetznor, of Berlin, whose qualifications to instruct even English scholars will not be disputed; and "A Mediæval Latin-English Dictionary," founded on Ducange's, by E. A. Dayman.

—While a certain amount of attention is being attracted towards China, the following extract from a modern native work (Peking, 1845), entitled "*Shing Wu Chi*," or "A History of the Wars of the Present Dynasty," to which our attention has been called by a correspondent, is of interest, and speaks volumes for the light in which recent action on the part of the great civilized powers is viewed by the literary classes of the empire. Referring to the "nations of the West," the writer (an official of high rank) says: "The books even of the British and other barbarians acknowledge Russia as the greatest of nations. Our own envoys in their journeys thither have had only interviews with the (Russian) territorial governors, and have not been admitted to see the Emperor." We are assured by residents in China that the trading classes expressed considerable surprise at the cordial receptions vouchsafed by the President and the crowned heads of Europe to Chinese who were of too low a grade to be permitted

to seat themselves before provincial governors. It is a pity that pains are not taken to explain to the Chinese the reasons which induce civilized nations to dispense with an etiquette which in their own country is regarded as all-important. The hint above given might, if acted upon, be of service in our future intercourse with a people who construe the amenities of civilized life as an acknowledgment of inferiority to the all-powerful children of the "Brother of the Sun."

ABBOTT'S SHAKESPEARIAN GRAMMAR.*

THE language of Shakespeare is not a different language from the English of to-day. It is not even a different dialect of the same language. In all that part of grammar which relates to the forms of words—the part in which dialect shows itself—the two are alike, or very nearly so. Yet Shakespeare's English is distinguished from ours by numerous, not to say innumerable, differences. If any one doubts the fact, a glance through the pages of this book will be sure to work conviction. The book does not, indeed, profess to take account of all differences between Shakespearian and modern English. Differences in vocabulary are not included in its plan; it gives no list of Shakespearian words which are now obsolete, nor any list of words now used which were unknown to Shakespeare; and in most cases where words common to both periods have changed their meaning, it is silent as to the change. It is not a dictionary, but a grammar, or, more precisely, a syntax of the Shakespearian language. Changes of meaning are only noted as they pertain to what may be called syntactical words—such as pronouns, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions—which only serve to express relations among nouns and verbs, the substantial elements of speech.

The sounds of a language are within the rightful province of the grammarian; but Mr. Abbott has not entered on the subject of English pronunciation in the sixteenth century. This, probably, is not because he regards it as differing little from the pronunciation of the nineteenth. It is more likely that he would refer those who desire information on this interesting but difficult subject to the great work of Mr. A. J. Ellis on the history of English pronunciation. If Mr. Ellis's conclusions are correct in all their extent, we should, perhaps, have to retract the statement that Shakespeare's English is not a different dialect from ours. In the simple phrase, "one touch of nature," he finds that every syllable has changed its sound during the past three hundred years. "One," he thinks, was sounded in Shakespeare's time very much as we sound "own;" *ou* in "touch" had the same sound as in "you," "youth;" "of" had the Yankee short sound of *o* in "bone," "coat;" while, as to "nature," he holds that, in all but accent, it was pronounced like the French "nature," having in its first syllable the sound of *a* in "far," and in its second the peculiar French *u*, so hard for modern English organs. Though Mr. Ellis's views on some points admit of question, it is certain that Shakespeare's pronunciation of his own text, were it possible for us to hear it, would seem to us excessively uncouth, or even ludicrous. But as no one would think of requiring that Shakespeare's text should be read now as the poet himself would have read it, this subject of Shakespearian pronunciation has no great practical importance, and we cannot blame Mr. Abbott for leaving it altogether unnoticed.

On the other hand, he has given much prominence to the proper rhythmic utterance of the Shakespearian verse. By the majority of readers this is almost wholly neglected. Many are endowed by nature with little or no feeling for rhythm; others are afraid to read rhythmically, lest it should seem like sing-song; others, again, look upon rhythm as inconsistent with dramatic propriety, since nobody uses it in actual conversation. It is not uncommon for teachers to direct their pupils to read verse just as if they found it written like prose, and believed it to be such. Many make a point of hurrying on, wherever they can, from one verse to the next, as if shooting rapids, without regard to the rhythmic pause—slight, perhaps, yet perceptible to a fine ear—which should mark the close of the rhythm. But it is evident that the author of this grammar is a lover of rhythm—one of those who hold that verse has its rights which readers are bound to respect. "My own experience," he says, "leads me to think that the prosody of Shakespeare has peculiar interest for boys, and that some training in it is absolutely necessary if they are to read Shakespeare critically." This experience, however, he would hardly have gained if his taste had not set him to teaching rhythm—if his ear had not been offended when good verse was murdered by unrhythmic reading. He has taken extraor-

* "A Shakespearian Grammar. An attempt to illustrate some of the differences between Elizabethan and Modern English. For the use of schools. By E. A. Abbott, M.A., Head-master of the City of London School, formerly Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. Revised and enlarged edition." London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1870. 16mo. pp. xxiv., 511.

diary pains with his treatment of this subject, introducing, as he says: "every difficult verse of Shakespeare where the text was not acknowledged as corrupt, or where the difficulty was more than slight." In his discussion of the apparent irregularities, he brings out many interesting facts, particularly as regards the contraction of words, the suppression of syllables by a slurring pronunciation, which must have been carried much further in Shakespeare's time than it is by good speakers at the present day. Some of his explanations—especially some of those in which he assumes a dissyllabic pronunciation for words that ordinarily are monosyllables—we are hardly prepared to accept. And we think that the gross carelessness shown in the printing of the earliest texts would have justified him in removing a much larger number of the seeming anomalies by slight and easy changes of the text. However this may be, Mr. Abbott has made it clear that Shakespeare was not negligent in the construction of his verse, but followed definite principles of rhythm, showing himself in this respect as in all others a true artist.

To the statement that, in regard to grammatical inflection, Shakespeare's English does not differ from ours, there is at least one noticeable exception. In the plural of the present tense, forms ending in *s* (such as "knows," "makes," "runs") are frequent in Shakespeare, especially when the verb is put before its subject, or when it follows two singular nouns connected by *and*, or where it stands in a relative sentence. The number of these forms is much greater than would be supposed by readers of the common editions, in which the *s* has been silently and almost unconsciously withdrawn from most of them. The extent of their use through the sixteenth century and much of the seventeenth was shown by Mr. T. R. Lounsbury in an exhaustive article, read before the American Philological Association at their meeting last summer. Both Mr. Lounsbury and Mr. Abbott derive the form from the Anglo-Saxon plural in *dh*, through an early English plural in *s*, which was current in the north of England. There can be no doubt that this is the true origin. Yet it is remarkable that a similar appearance—the use of the third person singular, instead of the proper plural forms—is common in the Celtic languages, the Welsh and Gaelic, where no similar explanation can be given of it; where we can only say that the third person singular, as the form oftenest used, has shown a tendency to encroach upon and supplant other forms of the tense.

But the book is mainly taken up with syntax: it presents, classifies, and describes the particulars in which the syntax of Shakespeare differs, more or less widely, from present usage. No attempt is made to give a strictly logical arrangement. The facts are grouped under a few leading heads: *adjectives, adverbs, articles, conjunctions, prepositions (personal, relative, and interrogative), relational constructions, verbs (forms, auxiliaries, inflections, moods, etc.)*, and these heads are placed in alphabetical order. Supplementary chapters treat of *ellipses, irregularities, compound words, prefixes, and suffixes*. This looseness of arrangement is an advantage, as permitting the author to bring in many observations for which, in a stricter system, it might have been hard to find a place. At the same time, the captions of the paragraphs present the subject of each with great distinctness, and, with the copious and excellent indexes, make it easy to look up what is said on any particular point.

Among the most interesting matters contained in the volume is the discussion of "thou" and "you." The Shakespearean use of "thou" is found to be surprisingly similar to that of the corresponding pronoun "du" in German. It is one of the curiosities of language, that one and the same pronoun should express veneration for the deity, familiar affection for kindred or near friends, and depreciation or dislike for other persons. Coke, in the trial of Raleigh, addressed the prisoner as "thou viper," and then added, "for I thou thee, thou traitor;" and yet Coke, every time he prayed, "thou'd" the Almighty. With the greatly restricted range of "thou" in modern English, its power to express insult or contempt has passed out of our consciousness; and by pointing this out in Shakespeare, Mr. Abbott has given a new force to many passages. The Quaker use of "thou" and "thee" seems to us now a mere oddity; but, in the intercourse of society two hundred years ago, it was a violation of courtesy, carrying the appearance of disrespect and rudeness; it required much the same fearlessness that the Quaker showed when he wore his hat in the presence of crowned heads. Mr. Abbott notes the fact that where "sir" is used in Shakespeare, "you" goes with it; and so, even where it comes, as it often does, in expressions of contempt or anger, the same irony which then breathes in the usually respectful "sir" dictates also the accompanying "you."

In noticing such forms as "Mars his true moving," "the count his gallies," Mr. Abbott rightly considers the "his" as not a true pro-

noun, but a graphic variation, caused by mistake, for the possessive inflection 's. It is but a short time since an elaborate attempt was made by Sergeant Manning, in the "Transactions of the Philological Society," to prove the opposite—to show that the possessive inflection 's is only a variation or contraction of the pronoun "his." Mr. Abbott, it is clear, has found his arguments unsatisfactory; and such, we think, must be the conclusion of every sound philologist.

After describing the use of "it" as the *indefinite* object of a verb (in such expression as to "fight it out," to "smooth it with the king," to "foot it"), Mr. Abbott says that this "use of 'it' with verbs is now only found in slang phrases." It may be so in England, though we doubt the fact; in America the expression, "I propose to fight it out on this line," can never cease to be classical. This is not the only case where he denies the present use of idioms which we had not thought of as obsolete or incorrect. Thus, while he admits that it is proper to say "this coat of yours," as the person addressed has, or may have, more than one coat, he asserts that we cannot say (except colloquially) "this head of yours," it being impossible for him to have more than one head. We believe, however, that if one should write, "Mrs. C. has a tongue of her own; and that tongue of hers is a sharp one," the propriety of the expression could not fairly be questioned. In "this coat of yours" the final pronoun does not mean "your coats," but "all that is yours," "all that belongs to you;" there is no reason, therefore, for objecting to "this head of yours." Again, the form, "He is the best man that I have ever seen," appears to him incorrect, unless it is taken as an abbreviation of "He is the best man of the men that I have ever seen." But there is nothing amiss here in the syntax, nor any necessity for the insertion suggested: "man that I have ever seen" denotes one of a class, that class being "the men that have been seen by me;" and "the best man that I have ever seen" denotes, simply and naturally, the best one of that class. Compare "the greatest painter living," or "the greatest living painter," with "the greatest painter who is now living:" none of these forms requires the assumption of an ellipsis.

Nothing is more common than to hear men speak of a peculiar "freshness" of style as belonging to the writers of the Elizabethan age. The impression thus described is, no doubt, partly an illusion. The style appears to us as fresh partly because it is not familiar to our ears and minds. A thought which, in the language of our own day, has become hackneyed and feeble, assumes vividness and interest when we see it in the strange costume of the sixteenth century. Yet it must be admitted that there is also a real ground for the impression of which we speak. The Elizabethan writers used the English language with a freedom which we dare not exercise. They treated it as their slave, not their master. Not having to dread a minute verbal criticism, not having the fear of grammarians before their eyes, they were ready to adopt any expression which most intelligibly and strongly represented their meaning. As examples of Shakespearean constructions, vivid and expressive, which a strict grammatical logic could not approve, and which are no longer in use, we may instance: the double comparative and superlative, as, "to some more fitter place," "the most unkindest cut of all;" the ethical dative, as, "hear me this," "he plucked me ope his doublet;" the relative pronoun, as a general sign of relation, without construction of its own, as, "who, when he lived, his breath and beauty set gloss on the rose," "who, if he break, thou may'st with better face exact the penalty;" the subject of a dependent clause brought in by anticipation with the principal verb, as, "you hear the learn'd Bellario what he writes," "the dead man's knell is there scarce asked, for who" [*i.e.*, it is scarcely asked, for whom is the dead man's knell], etc. It must be owned that this freedom of construction is sometimes the cause of obscurity. The citation last made is an example of this, and others are easily added: thus, "let what is meet be said, it must be meet" [*i.e.*, as to what is meet, let it be said that it must be meet]; "tis our hope, sir, after well enter'd soldiers, to return" [*i.e.*, after our being well enter'd as soldiers]; "this must be known; which being kept close might move more grief to hide than hate to utter love" [*i.e.*, to hide it might cause more grief than unwillingness to utter it would cause love]. It can hardly be denied that the influence of grammatical criticism, narrow, overstrained, and tasteless as it has very generally been, has tended, on the whole, to greater precision and perspicuity. Yet it must bear the charge of having mistaken the true nature and ends of language, and of having unnecessarily and unreasonably abridged our resources of expression. Both the interests of literature and the spirit of the time call for a freer treatment of the language, for a return in some degree to the independence of the Elizabethan writers.

It is hardly necessary to declare more explicitly our high opinion of this "Shakespearean Grammar." It should be in the hands of all students of Shakespeare, and that is a designation which ought to include all cultivated readers of the English language.

THE MAGAZINES FOR FEBRUARY.

THE *Galaxy* and the *Atlantic* vie with each other this month for the praise of being called the best of the February magazines, and it might be hard to say which of the two is the better. Both contain articles which are very well worth the attention of persons who care nothing for most of our periodical literature. Mr. Thurlow Weed, giving to the *Galaxy* a chapter out of his forthcoming autobiography, relates the history of a few days that he spent with Mr. Lincoln just after the presidential nomination and election in 1860 had made it necessary for the Republican candidate and the President-elect to bethink himself about the conduct of the campaign and the choice of his Cabinet. Mr. Weed, as everybody knows, had worked hard for his friend Seward; and for various reasons, about which Mr. Horace Greeley and Mr. George William Curtis probably know more than anybody else, he had failed to secure the nomination of his favorite, and had seen him beaten by a rough Westerner of no great reputation outside the limits of his own State. Mr. Weed confesses that he was very much annoyed at this result of his labors, and confesses, too, that he was very despondent when he thought of the future of the party and the country; and whoever has a clear recollection of the condition of the country ten years ago will admit that a cool-headed Republican, seeing Douglas, Breckinridge, Bell, Everett, and a united South, threatening secession and war, arrayed against a divided North and an obscure Illinois lawyer, to whom was necessary the support both of the odious abolitionists and of the men who hated Garrison, might not unreasonably have thought there were good grounds for dejection and fear. While in this state of mind, Mr. Weed was waited upon by two friends of Mr. Lincoln, who wished to commend the new nominee to the favorable consideration of prominent Eastern politicians. Mr. Weed informed them that the result of the convention's action had been so disappointing to him that he had no heart to talk about the canvass, and that he must relieve himself by travel and change of scene, after which he hoped to be able to come home refreshed, and perhaps do something for the success of the party in the approaching contest. That he might be better enabled to do good service, Mr. Lincoln's friends arranged that Mr. Weed and Mr. Lincoln should meet at Springfield and thoroughly discuss the political outlook. The meeting took place soon afterwards, and Mr. Weed says that he was much struck by Mr. Lincoln's practical sense and by his familiarity with the virtues and infirmities of politicians. Apparently the practical politician saw clearly that he had come upon a practical politician who was also a statesman, and at once gave him cordial respect and hearty liking. Again meeting Mr. Lincoln after the election, Mr. Weed's good opinion of the new President's mind and character appears to have been confirmed, and his relation of the conversations that passed between them, when the selection of cabinet officers was the subject of consideration and argument, is highly interesting and, unless authoritatively contradicted, will be held to be creditable to both the interlocutors. That there will be authoritative contradiction we are at present much inclined to disbelieve, for Mr. Weed's whole manner inspires confidence in his truthfulness and accuracy. He seems to be very frank, and his clear, straightforward talk impresses one as the words of a good-hearted and truthful man. His enemies—and certainly he used to have enemies—might, true enough, point to the fact that, when he was out in Illinois consulting with Mr. Lincoln, Mr. Lincoln was in daily receipt of telegrams from many gentlemen in the East, who earnestly warned him against the insidiousness and plausibility of the New Yorker; but of the goodness of these missives as evidence against him, there will be doubt among people who know much about the correspondence of the men so far inside politics as to send telegrams to Presidents-elect. Whatever the value of Mr. Weed's contributions to history, it is worth while to call the attention of the readers and writers of newspapers to the style in which they are couched. It has none of the graces; but to mistake the writer's meaning is an impossibility. What he wishes to say he says; and, furthermore—to go above matters of mere composition and to get into the region where "the style is the man"—Mr. Weed may well be praised for the courage with which he gives free expression to his estimate of various well-known politicians, about whom most men not their partisan enemies talk smooth things and tell little that is true or intended to be accurately descriptive.

Other good articles in the *Galaxy* are that in which Mr. Down Piatt

gives some reminiscences of his life at the French Court in the early days of Napoleon and Eugénie, and that in which Mr. Jeremiah Black locks horns with Senator Wilson. Mr. Stanton's character is really the subject-matter of the dispute between Mr. Black and Mr. Wilson; and while the ex-Secretary shows plenty of ill-temper, and is compelled to plead guilty to the charge of having made several inaccurate statements, and while his manners are in many respects none of the best, we think that upon the whole he shows to advantage in comparison with his antagonist; and it would seem that his production has considerable historical value. He is in such heat, however, and the spirit of the advocate is so native to him, that one would not care to pin one's faith to any of his assertions. Mr. Stanton, meanwhile, what with the one and the other of his eulogists, fares ill. Perhaps it is best to believe that during the earliest part of our late troubles he was a politician, with many of a politician's small tricks; that when afterwards he rose to the level of statesmanship, he nevertheless retained some of the characteristic traits of a Democratic office holder; and, moreover, that he was a man of such robust confidence in himself that he often exposed himself to misconstruction by doing for old secessionist friends of his things which no Union Secretary of War could do who was a mere Secretary and nothing more. He would put a rebel friend upon his honor, and let him pass through the lines to Richmond, and he would keep on friendly terms with Mr. Black while giving Mr. Sumner secret information as to the counsels of Buchanan's Cabinet; but neither his duplicity nor his rather carelessly audacious gratification of his personal predilection for rebels prevented his being a public servant to whom the people owe a vast deal.

Mr. Piatt, in his "Souvenir of Imperial Sovereigns," tells in his racy way some pleasant stories of the once famous John Y. Mason, formerly our Minister to France; of Napoleon III.; of General E. V. Sumner, a bluff soldier; and of Eugénie, to whose imperial ears General Sumner was, one day, much inclined to give a sound boxing. Of Napoleon, Mr. Piatt seems to have formed, on sight of him, an opinion which, as most people will think, subsequent events have proved just. In his Western fashion Mr. Piatt pronounced the ex-Emperor a fool, and was bold enough to predict that it was not in him to make his new government last five years, and that, when it fell, the fall would be the result of the so-called sphinx's feebleness and incompetence. Another of the February *Galaxy's* articles which deserves mention as agreeable reading is Mr. Durand's sketch of the life of Madame Le Brun, the French artist, of whom he tells some pleasant anecdotes.

The best thing in the *Atlantic* is Mr. Fields's "Recollections of Hawthorne," which constitute an important addition to American literary *ana*. We do not know whether admirers of Hawthorne should welcome them or not. To our mind, they present their subject in an unfavorable light, and will do anything rather than conciliate the liking of the reader. A morbid, unhappy, and in no way overpleasant sort of a person is the figure which, as it seems to us, they present to us. Reading the essay, one begins to consider again the question how far it is justifiable to let the world at large into the heart of a great man's mystery. We learn something, truly, when we learn that our shining idol has feet of clay; but, perhaps, too, we lose something of the capacity which he developed in us for reverencing the divine as manifested in him, and perhaps the loss is greater than the gain. The question is a difficult one from whatever side we look at it. Meantime, Mr. Fields's article is interesting.

"The Friend of my Youth" is some account of an odd adventurer and rascal, whom Mr. T. B. Aldrich calls "The Friend of my Youth," and concerning whom he makes a sketch that is agreeably humorous. Mr. John Fiske begins a series of five papers with the general title of "Origins of Folk Lore," in which he will give, in a desultory way, and without any pretence of originality of matter, a short history of the rise and growth of the commonest popular myths. The author's wide reading, his careful industry, and his command of the most approved methods of philosophizing on these and similar subjects, will make the essays in question both useful and entertaining. There is nothing else, we believe, in this month's *Atlantic* that requires particular notice, unless it be Mr. W. D. O'Connor's lines, entitled "To Fanny," which we think we have never seen equalled in worthless and offensive absurdity by any contribution to any magazine.

In *Old and New* there is a singular article—unaccountable, so far as we can see, as regards motive, and remarkable, also, for the manner of the author's treatment of his subject—written by Mr. J. A. Bolles, and entitled "Porter-Humphreys-Hardin." These names are the assumed names of a commonplace swindler, now in the Massachusetts State Prison, whose per-

formances are treated of as if somehow or other Mr. Bolles had taken a deep personal interest in running the rascal to earth. The effect is very curious.

In the editorial part of the magazine there are some suggestive remarks about the decline in American political writing and the alleged indisposition on the part of the college-bred American to busy himself with politics and government. The subject is too wide a one for us to undertake its discussion here. It may be remarked, however, that the political writing of the founders was comparatively easy work. They dealt with admitted propositions and axioms, and the question was only of the application of these to the uses of a people already trained in working the machinery of government, and who were called upon to say little more than whether or not they would make certain changes of gearing. The American political writer of to-day has laid upon him, in addition to the labor of explicating a constitution, the infinitely more arduous task of exploring the wide field of social science, and utilizing his observations and inductions by applying newly discovered and little known laws to the legislation of a community immensely larger and with interests immensely more varied than it ever entered into the imagination of the "Federalist" writers to conceive. Our success may not be so marked as that of the founders; but we have heavier work than theirs, and we do not wholly fail.

The chief article in the *Catholic World* is the first article, which is a review of Baron Hübnér's book on Sixtus V. There is not very much ground left by the definition of the new dogma for one who wishes to write the history of the Popes, and still wishes to be a good Catholic, and perhaps it may be true that in this article Sixtus V. is overpraised. But he was a good civil ruler, certainly, and deserves the praise he gets for the suppression of the brigands in the Roman States. He did not spare the monks, either, in his attacks on fraud and robbery, and the story of some of the penalties that he inflicted sounds like a page out of our earlier New England history. Moses was his lawgiver. The robbers whom he brought to justice took their revenge in the famous pasquinade which was affixed to the statues of Saints Peter and Paul, which stand at the entrance to the bridge of St. Angelo at Rome.

"Why," says St. Paul to St. Peter, "have you your travelling wallet on your back?"

"Because," replies St. Peter, "I must get away from this place, or I shall be arrested for cutting off the ear of that fellow Malchus."

The other articles are a review of Dr. Newman's "Grammar of Assent," or, rather, a half-review of it; two slight performances, one on New York Lodging-houses, and one on the "Missions in Acadia;" another "Winter Evening" with that astonishing family in that remarkable New England town which has become or is becoming Roman Catholic; a continuation of the account of the really wonderful miracles of "Our Lady of Lourdes;" some praise of the well-known "Milesian race" in its early days; some praise, not too much modified either, of the Early New Englander; and, finally, the usual very bad book-notices which end the number.

In *Harper's* a friend of Woman with a capital may find some pretty writing in her, or his, or its, favor by Mr. Curtis, who makes us feel ashamed of our illiberality, and pity Addison also for being behind our age; a learned discussion of Columbus's claims to be regarded as the first discoverer of the New World; and a very full list of illustrated and other articles of the staple quality of the *Harper's Monthly* articles. This last number is as admirably fit as all of its predecessors for perusal in Texas and Montreal, and Key West and Eastport, and by every conceivable type of average American of either sex and of whatever age.

Scribner's Monthly, too, under its new management, begins to show a noticeable power of adaptation to the average taste and needs of our reading public. Dr. Holland's previous success in pleasing the general public might reasonably have been taken as a guarantee that he would make a magazine which should have a very wide acceptance, and such expectations would seem to have been already perfectly fulfilled. The new number opens with an interesting article, not too well written, but intelligent, giving an account of the founding of the New York Mercantile Library, and of the way in which that excellent institution is now carried on. The second article is a short historical paper—and when the clerks who visit the Mercantile Library undertake to read it we wish them joy of it—which attempts to tell the story of the French acquisition of Alsace and Lorraine, and the subverting of the innumerable bishoprics, free municipalities, duchies, and lordships which, from the time of Henry IV. to the time of Louis XVI., were fought for and intrigued for until at last France made prize of them. Third in the table of contents

—counting out a "Tartar Love Song" with Mr. R. H. Stoddard's name appended—is a pretty little love-story by Mr. Edward Eggleston; and for the rest there is a scientific essay about balloons; another entitled "Weather Telegrams and Storm Forecasts," by Professor T. B. Maury; an impudent and and sensible article, of the kind called lively, by "Gail Hamilton," in which "conferences" (of churches in Massachusetts) and women's rights women are laughed at; some chapters of Mr. George MacDonald's new story; a good deal of editorial matter of the general nature of the "social article," but without the sense and philosophic discussion which sometimes make the social article good, and without the point which oftener constitutes its claim to the reader's respect; and, finally, an installment of a story by Andersen. It is neither a story for children nor is it one of Andersen's novels, and it is, therefore, neither bad, as Andersen's grown-up stories are apt to be, nor thoroughly good, as almost always are his children's stories, in which he is almost always both childlike and wise—a story-teller for children and a poet for men.

MAUDSLEY'S BODY AND MIND.*

THE aim of these lectures is to point out the correlation of the physical and chemical forces with vital force—including in this the energy manifested as thought and volition—"to bring a science of life into close and indissoluble relations with other sciences, and thus to establish in cognition, or to reflect in consciousness, the unity which exists in nature." In the execution of this purpose, Dr. Maudsley is disturbed by the vision of an adversary, a metaphysician, who, for the purpose of mere speculation, insists on separating mind from body, and treating each as if it were an abstract entity, and even dares to feel ashamed of the body, and to declare it vile and despicable. He keeps up a running fire upon this antagonist which somewhat interferes with the satisfaction of the reader, who would gladly hear what Dr. Maudsley has to say without being troubled to consider futile objections. Indeed, we cannot help thinking it ammunition wasted, for we have reason to believe that "the metaphysician" has taken himself off to parts unknown, in company most likely with the philosopher who used to evoke camels and other objects from the depths of his own consciousness, and the gentleman who denied that brutes reason. They are gone, we hope, for good; and it is useless to keep up their memory. Metaphysicians nowadays (witness Dr. Stirling, a Hegelian too—though, it is true, a Doctor of Physic as well) admit, and even insist, that mind and body are one—subjective idea and objective idea—or, as Dr. Maudsley says, "*laws* or *ideas* in nature." This *oneness* does not, of course, mean that they are one *thing*; but neither would that be Dr. Maudsley's meaning. All things in nature are indeed, he considers, wrought from one stuff, and no doubt reducible, could we see nature as a whole, to one force. What disappears and reappears is form—matter neither is born nor perishes, but is only *transformed*. The proper conclusion evidently is that what is essential in all phenomena, what makes each thing such as it is, is form, and that the contrasted image of matter, as that which is and remains the same in all things, is only the abstract conception of potential being, receptivity, readiness to take form, *i. e.*, to exist, when the right conditions arrive. The universe, as Dr. Maudsley conceives it, is a continuous process of *formation*, in which the principle of form, of definite co-ordination, appears in ever-increasing sharpness of contrast to the vague indifference of elementary conditions. Nature is a hierarchy of forces and of tissues, beginning with the undefined dualism of mere tension in attraction and repulsion, and rising at last, through more and more sharply-pronounced differentiation and integration, to definite co-ordination in conscious volition. "Elementary matter thus passes upwards into chemical and organic compounds, and then downwards from organic to chemical, and from chemical compounds to its elementary condition." What is common to the whole of this process is the *tension*, the negativity or reflexion back upon itself, of elementary force. This constantly reappears in higher and higher shapes, more and more concentrated and specialized; both the antagonism and its reconciliation more and more complete. "Attraction is recognized in gravitation, cohesion, magnetism, affinity, love; while repulsion is found in the centrifugal force, in heat, in electricity, in antipathy and hate." As we go upwards in the scale, the amount of tension, the latent energy, becomes greater, but the outward display less; on the other hand, translating a higher mode into a lower, we *increase* the display. "One drop of water contains, and may be made to evolve, as much electricity as, under different modes of display, would suf-

* "Body and Mind: An Enquiry into their Connection and Mutual Influence, etc. Being the Guelstonian Lectures for 1870. By Henry Maudsley, M.D., etc." New York: Macmillan & Co., and D. Appleton & Co. 1870.

fice to produce a lightning flash. The decomposition of matter is the resolution of force, and in such resolution one equivalent of chemical force will correspond to several equivalents of inferior force." The drop of water is endowed with a certain amount of self-restraint, power to hold fast a particular set of relations to its surroundings. In the phenomena of life, this inwardness, this negation of mere extension, becomes still more apparent, and establishes itself, in the organism, in pointed antagonism to the levelling tendencies of the physical and chemical forces. The organic cell is the result of these forces, but of these forces as taken possession of and turned against themselves. It accordingly resists their action, or, rather, appropriates it. "The fundamental law of life is the same for its conscious and unconscious manifestations; it is individuation by appropriation."

Evidently Dr. Maudsley has no quarrel with metaphysicians, for his doctrine is plainly that ancient one, that "soul is form, and doth the body make," which no metaphysician, we trust, will deny. This ancient truth he reinforces and illustrates in a very interesting way from the phenomena of disease, bodily and mental. In the living body, in its normal state, the various organs, very happily says Dr. Maudsley, "agree in a consent of functions;" the mark of which is the common sensibility. It is not an aggregate, but a *whole*, whose duty, so to speak, or essence as an individual of specific character, is to live in certain relations with its surroundings. "When it is not so living, it is really degenerating, losing its nature or kind, passing more or less quickly toward death." The degeneration is accompanied, very naturally, by an increased demonstration of force, which, however, is in reality not power but weakness. When, from disease, a particular constituent of the body is prevented from rising to the dignity of its specific constitution and energy, there will be a production of an element of a lower kind, and therefore an increase in volume and motion. "It is as if the substance of a polype were produced amongst the higher physiological elements of the human body, and went on increasing there without regard to relations with surrounding elements of tissue." So the stormy rage and demonstrative activity which characterize inflammation really show degeneration of vitality. The muscular rigors, heat, pain—in short, violent and aimless molecular activities, testify to a retrograde metamorphosis, and the increased action of inflammation is in fact diminished vital action; just as the violence of emotion is vastly inferior to the self-contained activity of definite productive aim. "Perhaps it might once for all be stated, as a law of vital action, that the dignity of the force is in an inverse ratio to its volumetrical display."

The highest form of being, then, will be that which makes least show, viz., mind, ideas, as such; whilst, on the other hand, translated into the appropriate forms, it makes the most, or is the most real of all things. As vital force is "by far the highest force in dignity, a small quantity of it will correspond in value to a much greater quantity of an inferior force; . . . vital force surpasses chemical force apparently in as great a degree as chemical force surpasses physical force. How great, then, must be its mechanical equivalent! Who can measure the power of a great idea? Armies fight in vain against it, and nations yield to its sway." There is, however, some danger of misconception here. The great idea as *idea* cannot be *measured*, in the sense meant, not because it is the greatest, but because it is the least of all things, i. e., that which has the least volumetrical display. Its material greatness comes after it has undergone retrograde metamorphosis into force of a lower kind. Dr. Maudsley reaches here a point of view from which he might not improbably, on reflection, characterize as ambiguous and misleading many statements scattered through the book—such, for example, as that emotion means special sensibility of the vesicular neurine; that memory and volition are physiological functions of the nervous centres, etc. Such statements are unsatisfactory and even slightly exasperating, just because in one sense they are correct enough, but not in the sense in which they are likely to be received. In one sense, thought is a function of matter, just as in one sense the winding-up of a watch is the function of the watch-key. But thought is a function which matter performs by losing its distinctive character, by becoming endowed with life and individuality. Life, as Dr. Maudsley says, is surrounded by forces that are always tending to destroy it; not to destroy it as matter, but to break up the special combination which it opposes to the indifference of elemental nature. The question is, What is the power that *resists* the natural operation of the elemental forces—resists them, to be sure, by using them against themselves, but still resists them? We are at present, Dr. Maudsley admits, unable to discover any cause of life except life itself. External circumstances are needful conditions, "but the inward fact is the important condition—it is the determining condition."

But it is some comfort, he thinks, that this scientific difficulty "only reflects a corresponding difficulty in nature," as shown by the fact that "considerable time elapsed in nature before vital force followed on the physical and chemical forces." But we may say of this "difficulty" what Hume said in a similar case, that it is either irresistible, or has no manner of force. Nature can have no difficulty in doing what is according to nature, and no ability to do anything else.

We cannot pursue the discussion of this point further, indeed, we have left ourselves no room to speak of what is perhaps the most interesting topic in the volume, viz., mental disease in its relation to bodily disorders; insanity as arrested development or retrograde metamorphosis of intelligence, the ravelling-out of reflection into instinct and animalism, the brute's brain within the human, the insane neurosis showing itself in the lack of purpose and human sympathy, the regress to primitive modes of function, chance impulses, and isolated motives, instead of rational, co-ordinated motives. But the book is short, and may be safely left to make a way for itself.

The Story of a Working Man's Life: with sketches of travel in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, as related by himself. By Francis Mason, D.D. With an introduction by William R. Williams, D.D. (New York: Oakley, Mason & Co. 1870.)—The title of this interesting narrative would probably not suggest to most readers the sense in which it is used by the writer, nor his motive in choosing it. The author began life as the son of an English shoemaker, and, after passing to this country, rose from the ranks of a merely manual laborer to that of a teacher of religion, without ceasing, nevertheless, to be a most industrious worker with hands and brain. Both parts of his checkered career, therefore, entitle him to call himself, as he is pleased to do, a working man; but so far as his book has a distinct aim, it would seem to be to offer to the mechanic or laboring class an example of the progress of which it is capable, if it will cultivate its natural faculties, improve its opportunities of learning, and desist from bad habits. Dr. Mason, to be sure, inherited his religious office quite as naturally as his trade, his father having been both a shoemaker and a preacher of no little power, while his grandfather was the founder of the first Baptist society in York. On the other hand, though his father "did not believe in teaching religion to very young children," but believed rather in teaching them history, Dr. Mason says:

"From the time I was four or five years of age till I passed my eighteenth year, there was rarely a Sunday passed in which I was not taken to meeting twice. I must have heard within that time more than 1,500 sermons, 3,000 prayers, 4,500 hymns, and a distressing number of exhortations; and yet not a single one of the whole ever made the slightest impression on my heart. They were all to me as if I had never heard them; but to sit under the delivery of the sermons was the greatest agony I have ever been called to endure in the threescore years and ten of my existence. Fever and ague were nothing to it." "For many years," he adds, "I was constrained to attend Sabbath-schools, but they were as unprofitable to me as the preaching of the sanctuary. I committed to memory, during those years, an untold amount of Scripture texts; but they were like water poured into a sieve. They all ran away and left nothing behind. My moral nature was untouched."

It was not till after this "Yorkshireman by chance," having crossed the ocean and journeyed through the United States, finally reached Boston, and became "a New Englander by election," that his religious capacity was revealed to him, and that he prepared for the mission to Farther India, in which he has so greatly distinguished himself.

The extract we have quoted is a fair sample of the frank and confidential language of the autobiography, which is equally remarkable for good sense and simplicity, and abounds in entertaining anecdotes. Resisting a strong temptation to reproduce several of these, we select the following:

"While Monroe and Jackson represented widely separated classes in society, Harrison was equally a representative man of another class—the farming community. In 1819, Harrison had nothing in his manners to distinguish him from a common farmer. I recollect selling him a pair of shoes for his daughter, in my uncle's shop in Cincinnati, and he brought a stick the length of her foot, just as country people usually do, and she was fitted with shoes by that. He was a thoroughgoing politician. He had been recently elected, I think, to the Ohio Senate, and he entered into a long defence of himself and his policy, against electioneering charges that had been brought against him, though we had no personal acquaintance. Politicians sow by all waters, and they reap."

Here is a chapter on woman's rights:

"The Burmese are a people, in many respects, with a higher civilization than the nations around them, and this is especially manifested in their treatment of women. According to the Burmese law, a married woman can hold property as independently of her husband as if she was not married. If a girl has property when she marries, it remains her pro-

erty; and if she acquires property after marriage, that also is her own. This is manifestly just, the English laws to the contrary notwithstanding. Since woman can enjoy her own earnings in Burmah, it is found she has a great aptitude for business; and at least half the trading done in Burmah is done by women. When a woman is the wife of one of the governing class, she usually does about as much of the governing as her husband, if not more, and often sits with him on the bench of justice—so called. The wife of the seek-kai, the highest officer in Tavoy, sat constantly in court with her husband; she allowed the suitors to crowd around her; and when she put her hands behind her, if any one slipped a roll of rupees into them, she immediately began to advocate the cause of that party; and it was noted that she gained every cause she supported. Of course the husband knew nothing about it, and could not be charged with taking bribes."

We have left ourselves no room in which to speak of Dr. Mason's brilliant contributions to philology and natural science. At the age of seventy-two he is still far from being inactive, and far, we trust, from passing away.

Dorothy Fox. By the author of "How it all Happened," etc. With numerous illustrations. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1871.)—This is an entertaining and pleasantly written story which we commend to such readers as are tired of the mental struggles and the moral and metaphysical difficulties which are served up in the pages of most modern novels. It contains two very pleasant love episodes, in which nobody's agonies are unduly protracted, and in which all the principal characters are agreeable people. It has no special moral that we know of, except that it is better to marry for love than for money, and this it enforces pleasantly and without any effort to harrow the reader's feelings. The book comes, in short, really under the head of light reading of an unobjectionable sort, a peculiarity which it does not share with most of our current fiction.

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Bulletin of the Essex Institute, Vol. II., No. 9, swd.....	(Salem) 0 10
Chavasse (Dr. P. H.), <i>Counsel to a Mother</i>	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Colange (L.), <i>Zell's Popular Encyclopedia</i> , Nos. 51-54, swd.....	(T. Ellwood Zell) 0 50
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Furness (H. H.), <i>New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare: Vol. I. Romeo and Juliet</i>	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
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